

# JACET 言語教師認知研究会 研究集録 2013

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はじめに

言語教師認知研究会は、「言語教師認知(language teacher cognition)」という概念を探究する目的のもとにゆるやかに連携しながら研究を進めている会である。何かの目的の為に結束して研究を実施する研究会ではないが、心地よく言語教師に関わる問題を考えるコミュニティと考えていただきたい。おかげさまで、この『言語教師認知研究会研究集録』も3号を発刊する運びとなった。編集に携わる江原美明氏、志村昭暢氏には感謝したい。また、研究発表をしていただき、論文を寄せていただいた方にもお礼を言いたい。

これを書いている場所はスウェーデンのヨーテボリのとあるホテルである。WALS2013 という授業研究(Lesson Study)の学会に参加している。スウェーデンでは「Learning Study」と言っているそうだ。要するに教師の「学び」の探究の会である。やはり教師は自分の頭で考えることが大切だとあらためて考えさせられたが、はたしてきちんと考えているだろうか疑問に思った。忙しさにかまけて、日々同じことをくり返し、「忙しい」と言い訳していないだろうか。あるいは、論文や発表の件数ばかりを気にして中身のない研究をしていないだろうか。「学び」ということの本質を考えさせられた学会である。私の疑問は、私たちは「学び」の本質の周囲を堂々巡りしているだけではないかということだ。「分かった」と思った瞬間にそれは消えるのである。

しかし、「分かった」ことは大切で、それを記録することは意義がある。複雑であり研究されていない教師認知の研究はすぐには解決しないかもしれないが、積み重ねることは重要だ。今回集録された論考のすべては必ずしも教師認知の研究の枠組に当てはまるものではないかもしれないが、ある面から考えると、どの論考にもそれぞれの著者の教師認知が詰まっている。私はその集合が教師認知研究を明らかにすると信じている。教師認知の研究の意義は、教師自身にあり、教師自身の考えに対する気づき方をより科学的に把握し、教師の思考をどう変えていくかにある。探究していただきたい。

2013 年 9 月 30 日

JACET 言語教師認知研究会代表 笹島茂

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## 目 次

はじめに・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・	i
言語教師認知研究会記録・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・	iv
言語教師認知研究の進め方についての可能性	
一英語教師のこころの探求として	笹島 茂・・・・・・・・・・ 1
言語教室における Teacher Gesture の考察	
一足場掛けの視点から一	草薙 優加 ・・・・・・・・ 16
The Nature of Classroom Discourse in Contextually Appropriate Communicative Language Teaching: A case study of Japanese pre-service teachers in Thailand	
	James M. Hall ・・・・・・・・ 31
Modeling Japanese High School Teachers' Beliefs Regarding Communicative Language Teaching	
	Takako Nishino ・・・・・・・・ 55
A Comparative Study of the Corpora for General and Specific Purposes for a Pragmatic Study	
	Toshihiko Suzuki ・・・・・・・・ 67
Teachers' reflective learning through a teacher study group: Teachers' beliefs of task-based language teaching	
	Chie Ogawa ・・・・・・・・ 78
The use of J-POSTL in pre-service teacher education	
	Akiko Fujii ・・・・・・・・ 101

## 言語教師認知研究会記録 2012年11月～2013 年7月

### 研究会のテーマ

日本における言語教師認知研究の理論と実践の確立と実態調査

#### 1. JACET2012（名古屋大会）シンポジウム

##### Title:

Aspects of Japanese EFL teachers' cognitions on communicative language teaching (CLT) [JACET-SIG on LTC]

##### Presenters:

Shigeru Sasajima, Takako Nishino,  
Yoshiaki Ehara, Toshinobu Nagamine

##### Abstract:

This symposium aims to explore Japanese EFL teachers' cognitions regarding CLT and provide insight into the extent to which they are making use of CLT. We begin with a survey study on teachers' awareness of CLT conducted in Japan and Finland. Next, we look closely at Japanese high school teachers' beliefs and practices regarding CLT, introducing data from an investigation of those beliefs and practices within the context of relevant socio-educational factors. Then, we look at data collected from case studies of learners and teachers who have experienced CLT. We finally report on research findings of a qualitative case study of one EFL teacher working in a junior-high school. This symposium will try to provide ideas for how CLT should be updated for the current EFL context in Japan. During the symposium, we will introduce the findings of language teacher cognition research in order to better understand what form CLT takes in Japan and what it means to teachers.

※プロシーディングズ全文は下記リンクに掲載

<https://www.box.com/shared/static/hx9h7eozd39l1gibxmtm.pdf>

## 2. 研究発表会開催記録

### 第11回 研究発表会

日時：2012年11月24日（土） 2時～5時

場所：立教大学12号館2階会議室

#### 1. 草薙優加（群馬大学）

「外国語教室における教師身振りの考察」

#### 2. 鈴木利彦（早稲田大学）

「『語用論的能力』育成に関する教師の認識の考察」

### 第12回 研究発表会

日時：2013年1月26日（土） 2時～5時

場所：聖心女子大学 3号館 343号室

#### 1. 小川知恵（愛知教育大学）

「小学校教員と中学校教員の外国語活動に関する認識のギャップについて」

#### 2. 藤井彰子（聖心女子大学）

「教職課程における EPOSTL(JPOSTL)の使用」

### 第13回 研究発表会

日時：2013年5月25日（土） 2時～5時

場所：王子北トピア 803 会議室（8階）

#### 1. 江原美明（神奈川県立国際言語文化アカデミア）

「現職高校英語教員研修のための授業観察シートの開発」

#### 2. 長谷川聡（北海道医療大学）

「言語教師認知の望ましい統計利用～英語教育のこの統計処理は間違っている！」

### 第14回 研究発表会

日時：2013年7月27日（土）

場所：立教大学 12号館2階会議室

#### 1. 伏野久美子（立教大学）

「協同学習における教師の役割」（ワークショップ）

#### 2. 高木亜希子（青山学院大学）

「教員養成における振り返りの意味」

# 言語教師認知研究の進め方についての可能性-英語教師のこころの探求として

笹島 茂（埼玉医科大学）

笹島(2012)は、「英語教師のこころの研究(language teacher kokoro research)」を提案した。提案は次のような内容である。

英語教師を対象として、彼らのビリーフがうまく機能しない課題に対して、どのように学び、どのように思考し、どのように知識を再構築し、どのように授業（指導）に具現化するかを、教師個人および同僚などと活動している学校文化や学習者を鏡として省察し、状況に応じた具体的な問題（課題）と絡めて、どのような「こころ（知識、意図、意思決定、感情など）」の働きをしているのかを探求する

「こころ」をここで定義することは困難であるが、日本の中等教育の英語教師を理解する場合、認知(cognition)という用語を使用するより教師の成長や課題解決につながる適切な捉え方と考えられる。教師認知(teacher cognition)という用語は、教師のビリーフ、知識、学習、思い込みなどを総合する意味(Borg, 2003)で使われるようになってきているが、その概念では、教師の養成や研修、意思決定などの理性的な認知プロセスに焦点が当てられ、複雑な学校文化や教師の情意的な面は除外される傾向にある。そこで、「こころ」という用語を使うことにより、教師を多面的に考え、その複雑な心的過程を実践的に理解できる可能性が生じる。つまり、英語教師の自律的な成長や自己の探求を図るためには、より実践的に、臨床的に、教師自身が協同することで、教師の「こころ」に焦点を当て、教師の成長につながる研究ができるのではないか。

本論文では、そのような背景から、言語教師認知の研究における日本的な質的調査方法の一つの試みを、夏目漱石の『こころ』(1914)という小説と Dörnyei (2011)の再現（遡行）性質的モデル化（Retrodictive Qualitative Modelling）(RQM)の考えをもとに、提案したい。

## 1 日本の文脈における教師認知研究

夏目漱石の『こころ』(1914)は、「私」と「先生」と呼ばれる人の心の内面の動きを扱った作品であり、多くの人に読まれ続けている。魅力の一つは、なぜ「先生」は自殺をしたのかという深い人間的なテーマにある。漱石は、自分が抱える悩みを文学というかたちで

提示し、多くの人に共感を与えた。うまく説明できない複雑な人間の心を小説という形式で表現したのである。『こころ』は、「先生」と「K」という先生の友人による「お嬢さん」をめぐる恋愛を題材にし、一見するとそれを原因として二人とも自殺するという話の構成になっている。しかし、『こころ』を読んだ人の多くは、「私は淋しい人間です」という「先生」のこころに象徴される人間の存在に関する命題に直面することになる。本稿で扱う言語教師認知は、その命題に共通する言語教師が抱える様々な複雑な問題や課題を扱い、英語教師自身による自己の探求を目的とする点で、漱石がテーマとした当時の日本の知識人が抱える「こころ」の問題と関連すると考え、『こころ』のいくつかの場면을素材とし、言語教師認知研究の視点のあり方を考察する。

言語教師認知という用語は、英語の *language teacher cognition* (Borg, 2003) を逐語訳したものである。そのために多少分かりにくい面がある。また、*teacher beliefs* (e.g. Pajares, 1992)、*teacher knowledge* (e.g. Carlderhead, 1996)、*teacher self-efficacy* (Brissie, Hoover-Dempsey & Bassler, 1988)、*teacher learning* (Freeman & Richards, 1996) などの用語も使われ、教師に関する研究が多く存在し、それらの多様な研究領域を束ねる用語として使われる *teacher cognition* という用語の定義も明確に共有されているかどうかは微妙である。しかし、*cognition* という英語は「認知」と訳され、認知科学、認知症などが一般に定着しているために使わざるを得ない。そのために、言語教師認知は教師の認知言語学と誤解されることがあるのも仕方ないだろう。それだけではなく研究自体の枠組みの問題もある。日本の非母語話者としての英語教師の認知を研究する上で、それまでの研究の枠組みでは適切に英語教師の内面世界を分析し、課題解決に向かうリサーチ結果が得られにくい問題も指摘されている(Watanabe, 2012; Sasajima, 2012)。

笹島(2012)は、言語教師認知の研究に「言語（英語）教師のこころの研究」という表現を加えた。日本における言語教師認知の研究、つまり、英語教師の認知の研究は、日本の学校教育システムを考えた場合は他国に較べて複雑であり、言語を教えるだけに特化できない要因が多々あると指摘した。そこで、日本語の「こころ」がその問題を適切に表現すると考えた (Sasajima, 2012)。本稿では、その点を踏まえて、夏目漱石の『こころ』に表現されている複雑な人間の内面性を題材として、言語教師認知的な考察を加え、英語教師のこころの探求の可能性について考察を加えたい。

## 2 『こころ』に見られる言語教師認知的視点

日本における言語教師認知の研究を進める上で、夏目漱石の『こころ』を題材として日本的な視点について考えてみよう。夏目漱石を取り上げた理由は、漱石が元々英語教師で



あり、その代表的作品『こころ』は、日本の英語教育環境における言語教師の認知を探究する意味において一つの柱となると考えたからである。『こころ』というタイトルが示す通り、人間の内面世界を明治という時代の精神と個人の関係から扱い、漱石が経験した西洋的近代化の中での苦悩が表されている。また、『こころ』という小説の形式は、「私」と「私」という語り手から「先生」と呼ばれている二人の人の語りで構成されていて、ナラティブ（語り）に近い要素がある。日本の社会文化では、先生という語は一般的に教師を意味するが、単にある科目を教える人というよりは、人間的に尊敬される対象と見なされることが多い。多くの場合、英語教師も英語を教えるだけの仕事ではなく、学級を担任し、部活動の顧問をし、まずは先生である必要がある。そのような点に注目し、『こころ』を題材として取り上げた。

人の「こころ」は複雑である。どの程度複雑であるかを検証するのは、今日の自然科学的な分析では解明がむずかしい。脳研究は急速に進んでいるが、脳の機能をいくら探求しても、構造やメカニズムはある程度説明できるかもしれないが、感情や情緒は状況により変化するので物理的に捉えにくく、満足できる説明が得られない。それに対して、言語教師認知の研究は、認知心理学の知見を生かし、授業行動、授業の意思決定、教師の成長など、観察不可能な教師の内面を探究する方向で発展し、言語学習（者）に焦点を当てた第2言語習得(SLA)研究を補完する意図を持って研究が進んでいる。しかし、教師個人の探求だけではなく、養成や研修における同僚性、社会文化的な背景、教師個人がかかわる歴史的な経緯、学習者との相互作用などを考慮する必要がある、より複雑に研究の枠組みを構築する必要が出てきている。結局、教師が直観では理解できていることが、科学的には理解されないという状態が継続している。そこで、言語教師認知の研究では、教師が活動する文脈（状況）を適切に反映させることが重要であると考え、ESL（第2言語としての英語）環境を中心として発展した言語教師認知の研究を、そのまま日本の中等教育の英語教師に当てはめることはむずかしいし、適切な結果を得られない可能性が高い。調査研究においても、日本という文脈、日本の教育の歴史や文化を考慮する必要がある。その点を整理する意味で、『こころ』を題材に、日本の英語教師の認知を「教師のこころの研究」という枠組みで考える視点を以下に検討する。

漱石の『こころ』という作品は、「私」と「先生」の内面の心理がナラティブの形式で描写されているので、「私」と「先生」による「再帰的な省察(reflexivity)」が行われていると捉えることができる。再帰的な省察あるいはリフレキシビティーは、省察が内省的であるのに対して、双方向性があり、単に省察というよりは、社会性に関連し、信頼性(credibility)が高い。その点も考慮しながら、日本的な教師認知の研究を特徴付ける「こころ」の捉え方を、『こころ』に見られる特徴的な表現を抽出して考察し、調査の視点を提示したい。

## 2.1 主観的情緒性

「私は淋しい人間です」（上 先生と私 七）

「淋しい」という感情は主観的で情緒的で曖昧だが、『こころ』の底流にある人間的なテーマであり、この小説に普遍性を与えている。教師のこころの研究では、このような感情を的確に捉え、考察する必要がある。例えば、「淋しい」という感情の対象、原因、程度などを明らかにすることで、教師のビリーフ、知識、思考などの特徴が理解できるだろう。「淋しい」と感じる認知のメカニズムは「こころ」という用語で説明するほうが適切である。理由は、日本の英語教師がどのような知識、感情、意図を持って教えているのかを理解するには、このように複雑で主観的情緒的な面により注目することが重要であると考えるからである。つまり、「今日の授業はうまくいかなかった」という教師の主観的で情緒的な思い込みは、単に授業内容が効果的であるかないかだけの問題ではなく、複雑な個人的社会的背景に根ざすものだ。この点に、再帰的な省察による探求に加えて、主観的思考や情緒を社会的に認知(Fiske & Taylor, 2008)する観点を取り入れ、他者との省察により分析することの価値が生まれる。「淋しい」というこころを漱石的に分析しようとする試みは、教師認知の研究に一つの可能性を示唆するだろう。

## 2.2 複雑な感情の探索的な分析

「議論はいやよ。よく男の方は議論だけなさるのね、面白そうに。空の盃でよくああ飽きずに献酬ができると思いますわ」奥さんの言葉は少し手痛かった。しかしその言葉の耳障からいうと、決して猛烈なものではなかった。自分に頭脳のある事を相手に認めさせて、そこに一種の誇りを見出すほどに奥さんは現代的でなかった。奥さんはそれよりもっと底の方に沈んだ心を大事にしているらしく見えた。（上 先生と私 十六）

「私」が述べている「先生」の「奥さん」の「それよりもっと底の方に沈んだ心」を客観的に理解することは不可能に近い。それは理性に対する感性と言えるかもしれないが、それだけではなさそうである。その複雑な感情にシフトした認知を明らかにすることが、日本における英語教師認知の研究の一つの課題である。しかし、アンケートなどの量的なデータ分析、インタビュー、観察、ナラティブなどの質的なデータ分析をもとに、原因-結果という因果関係を考えるだけでは、複雑な意思決定システムは理解できないだろう。教師の複雑なこころを探求するためには、上記の引用に示されるような理性的な思考だけで

はない感性に根ざす認知システムの理解が重要である。それには探索的なアプローチが有効であると考えられるが、どのように複雑な英語教師のこころを探求するか明確な方法は現時点ではない。可能性としては、心理学的な探索方法が考えられるが、言語教師認知研究においては単に分析することだけを合目的化しているわけではなく、探求することで改善あるいは成長を図ることを意図している。その点から考えれば、『こころ』に示される双方向的なナラティブ・アプローチは、英語教師の複雑な心的過程の一端を明らかにできる可能性がある。

## 2.3 再現することの意味

「別問題とは思われません。先生の過去が生み出した思想だから、私は重きを置くのです。二つのものを切り離したら、私にはほとんど価値のないものになります」(上 先生と私 三十一)

『こころ』では、「私」が「先生」に傾倒し「先生」の過去に興味を持つ、その結果「先生」が遺書として「私」に語るという構成をとっている。見方を変えると、「先生」の言葉により「先生」の過去が再現されたことになる。これは、事実ということではなく「先生」のこころを表したものである。同様に、教師の「過去が生み出した思想」を理解することは、現在の教え方の理解につながり、その先にも通じる。その意味から、英語教師のこころの研究において、教師の履歴を遡って再現することは単に省察することではないということに留意すべきだろう。教師の思考や行動を再現するという意味は、現在を基準として過去を振り返り、過去につながる現在のこころを理解することである。教師認知の研究は、教師が教える授業にだけ焦点を当てるわけではなく、生徒や学校活動全体、あるいは、それにかかわる社会的な実践や状況をも含む(Johnson, 2009)。例えば、ある英語教師が訳読にこだわる理由はかなり複雑な要素から成り立つと予想される。アンケート、インタビュー、授業観察などの調査を行い、従来のような原因-結果の分析だけでは、その教師のこころは正確に見えにくい。そこに再現することの意義が生まれる。

## 2.4 教師自身による個人の探求

私は倫理的に生れた男です。また倫理的に育てられた男です。その倫理上の考えは、今の若い人と大分違ったところがあるかも知れませんが、私自身のものです。間に合せに借りた損料着ではありません。だからこれから発達しようという

あなたには幾分か参考になるだろうと思うのです。(下 先生と遺書 二)

教師の自律が叫ばれ、教師自身が主体的に様々な意思決定をすることが大切であるとされる。カリキュラムやシラバスの開発、教材の開発、評価の工夫など、教師はマニュアルに沿って機械的に指導するわけではない。教師は教えるプロセスの中で考えている(reflection in teaching)(Schön, 1987)。その思考はその教師自身の個人の知識と経験に根ざすものである。この個人の知識や経験が、「観察の徒弟制(apprenticeship of observation)」(Lortie, 1975)として次に受け継がれる。その意味で、「私自身のもの」という視点は、日本の英語教師のこころの研究のアプローチとしては特に意義があると考えられる。つまり、教師の知識や経験を一般化し平準化することだけが、教師認知の研究の目的ではないからだ。個々の英語教師のこころの特徴を理解し、共有することで、それをもとに教師の成長、学習の改善を図ることが大きな目標である。そのためには、教師自身による探求が最も大切である。教師認知の研究はそれを支援するための研究である必要があり、教師個人の研究が集積されることで研究の価値が高まる。英語教師のこころの研究はその一つを形成する。

## 2.5 実践に根ざす探求

「私は冷やかな頭で新しい事を口にするよりも、熱した舌で平凡な説を述べる方が生きていますと信じています。血の力で体が動くからです。言葉が空気に波動を伝えるばかりでなく、もっと強い物にもっと強く働き掛ける事ができるからです」(下 先生と遺書 八)

「熱した舌で平凡な説を述べる方が生きています」という考え方は、英語教師のこころを理解する上では欠かせない姿勢だろう。また、「言葉が・・・、もっと強い物にもっと強く働き掛ける」という質的なアプローチも重要な示唆を与える。仮説検証を基盤とする実証研究は、「冷ややかな頭で新しい事を口にする」姿勢に近く、量的証拠を積みあげることにより一般化を図り、法則を見つける。質的なアプローチでも、グラウンデッド・セオリー・アプローチ (Grounded Theory Approach; GTA)などの調査方法のように、理論化を目指す姿勢は同様である。しかし、それだけではなく、教師がかかわる授業における生徒とのやりとりや、教師自身の個人的な成長には、複雑で社会的で情緒的な面を探求するアプローチが重要となる。実践に生かされる知見を得るためには、「平凡な」データを丹念に積み上げ、教育現場に生かすべく働きかけることが大切だろう。英語教師のこころの研究は、社会からたびたび批判される英語教育の現状を、英語教師の現状を調査し、彼らがど

う考え、どう行動して、なぜそうしているのかを把握し、それに応えるべく、どう改善を図るのかを、実践に根ざして模索するのである。

## 2.6 観察不可能な複雑な認知システム

こういってしまえば大変簡単に聞こえますが、そうした心の経過には、潮の満干と同じように、色々の高低があったのです。私はKの動かない様子を見て、それにさまざまな意味を付け加えました。奥さんとお嬢さんの言語動作を観察して、二人の心がはたしてそこに現われている通りなのだろうかと疑ってもみました。そして人間の胸の中に装置された複雑な器械が、時計の針のように、明瞭に偽りなく、盤上の数字を指し得るものだろうかと考えました。要するに私は同じ事をこうも取り、ああも取りした揚句、漸くここに落ち付いたものと思って下さい。更にむずかしくいえば、落ち付くなどという言葉は、この際決して使われた義理でなかったのかも知れません。(下 先生と遺書 三十九)

人のこころの類型や性質はある程度特定できるかもしれないが、こころの動きを予測することはむずかしい。こころを直接観察することはできないので、言動や行動で判断するしかないが、それはあくまでも他者から見た判断であり解釈である(Doherty, 2009)。ましてや、自分のこころでさえ観察可能とは言えない。ここで「人間の胸の中に装置された複雑な器械」と表現されるこころは人の認知にかかわるが、脳機能の研究だけでは明らかにできない課題を提示している。英語教師のこころの研究は、その観察不可能な複雑な認知システムに焦点を当てる。つまり、観察不可能な複雑な英語教師のこころの何をどのように理解し、英語教育あるいは言語教育にどのように貢献するのかを課題としている。このアプローチはいわゆる教師の省察と関連するが、教師認知の観点からは、再帰的な省察という考え方が有効であると考ええる。再帰的な省察あるいはリフレキシビティーは、省察する教師自身と他の教師あるいは生徒との再帰的な関係性の中で英語教師の認知システムをより深く探求することである。そのようなアプローチによって、観察不可能な複雑な認知システムを「冷ややかな頭」で科学的にという視点だけではなく、人間的な思考の中で理解しようとする。

## 2.7 予測不可能な認知と行動

「奥さん、Kは自殺しました」と私がまたいいました。奥さんはそこに居竦まったよう

に、私の顔を見て黙っていました。その時私は突然奥さんの前へ手を突いて頭を下げました。「済みません。私が悪かったのです。あなたにもお嬢さんにも済まない事になりました」と詫まりました。私は奥さんと向い合うまで、そんな言葉を口にする気はまるでなかったのです。しかし奥さんの顔を見た時不意に我とも知らずそうってしまったのです。Kに詫まる事のできない私は、こうして奥さんとお嬢さんに詫びなければならなくなったのだと思って下さい。つまり私の自然が平生の私を出し抜いてふらふらと懺悔の口を開かしたのです。（下 先生と遺書 四十九）

教育実習では学習指導案を作成する。理由は、教育課程を理解し、学習目標を明確にして、それを達成するために指導内容と手順を計画し、具体的な教材の扱いを考え、実際に指導し、反省することによって、授業することを実践的に学ぶことができるからである。学習指導案を具体的に考えられるかどうか、あるいは、実際の授業で生徒を目の前にして、いかに指導実践できるかが、教育実習の一つの目的である。教育実習ばかりではなく、教師はどのような場合でもある程度の学習指導案を立てて授業に望む。しかし、教師はいかに計画していても、思ってもいないことをしてしまうことがある。あるいは、計画したことがうまく行かず、意図しない結果を招くことがあり、「不意に我とも知らずそうしてしまった」という行動はだれもが経験することである。「私の自然が平生の私を出し抜いて」と「先生」が表現しているように、理屈では説明できない「自然」なところの動きが通常予定していた意思決定とは違うことをしてしまう。

英語授業においても、熟練した教師でもこのような予期しない意思決定をしてしまうのは常である。ある意思決定をする要因は相当に複雑に絡み合っているからだ。その意思決定は、他者が観察するは不可能であり、自分自身でもよほど訓練しない限り内省はむずかしい。英語教師のこころの研究では、その点に注目する。予測不可能な認知や行動を変数として排除し、予測可能なことだけを整理して英語授業を研究するのではない。複雑な認知を複雑な総体として考えるのである。教師の資質向上にはその複雑な認知のメカニズムの理解が必要なのである。

## 2.8 こころの奥に潜む信念（ビリーフ）

私の胸にはその時分から時々恐ろしい影が閃きました。初めはそれが偶然外から襲って来るのです。私は驚きました。私はぞっとしました。しかししばらくしている中に、私の心がその物凄い閃きに応ずるようになりました。しまいには外から来ないでも、自分の胸の底に生れた時から潜んでいるもののごとくに思われ出して来たのです。私はそう

した心持になるたびに、自分の頭がどうかしたのではなかろうかと疑ってみました。(下先生と遺書 五十四)

『こころ』では「先生」は自殺する。「自分の胸の底に生れた時から潜んでいるもの」はその自殺を暗示させる。しかし、このようなこころの奥に潜む「閃き」という表現は、教師認知の研究では、おそらく教師の生まれ持っている性格あるいは信念（ビリーフ）に該当するだろう。英語教師の中には、授業で生徒の前で英語をコミュニケーションの道具として話さないという信念を持った人がいる。そのような教師は、文法訳読という活動に終始し、教科書の内容把握や文法ワークブックなどの問題を解き、それをテストするという授業活動に終始する。そのような授業内容が最も生徒のニーズにあった授業であると頑に信じている。教師は英語が話せないわけではなく、話そうとしないのである。あるいは、実際に英語を使う自信がないのかもしれない。こころのどこかでそう決めてしまい、その信念は簡単には変わらないのである。そのような状況では、「英語の授業は英語です」と学習指導要領にいくら示されても、その意図とは違う解釈をすることで、自分の教え方を持続する。彼らには彼らなりの論理があり、根拠がある。それは相当な年月を経てもなかなか変わらない。こうした英語教師のこころの奥に潜む信念（ビリーフ）を理解しない限り、学習指導要領をいくら改訂しても、現象的な教員研修をどう提供しても、英語教師のこころは変わることはない。

### 3 英語教師のこころの研究の視点

夏目漱石の『こころ』という作品を通して、日本の英語教師の認知の分析に必要と考えられる8つの視点について考察した。整理すると次のようになる。

1. 主観的情緒性
2. 複雑な感情の探索的な分析
3. 再現することの意味
4. 教師自身による個人の探求
5. 実践に根ざす探求
6. 観察不可能な複雑な認知システム
7. 予測不可能な認知と行動
8. こころの奥に潜む信念（ビリーフ）

これに関連して、Borg (2006:271)は言語教師認知の研究について次のような課題を提示しているので対照してみよう。

- 教師の認知の特徴を理解する
- 研究の範囲を広げる
- 教師認知が授業実践とどう関係するのか
- 認知と実践に文脈がどう影響するのか
- 教員養成で教師はどう成長するのか
- 教師の認知と実践はどう関係するのか
- 教師の専門的知識とは何か
- どのような調査研究方法が有効なのか

教師認知の研究では、状況に応じた認知の特徴を把握し、各地域社会や学校文化を反映した認知と実践を考慮し、養成や研修が教師の成長に与える影響や、認知と実践の複雑な関係を明らかにする必要がある。教師が必要とする専門知識は多面的であり複雑である。話したことや観察したことを克明に分析し客観的なデータを積み重ねることは当然必要であるが、それだけでは限界があり、実際に活動している教師が直面する様々な場面に応用される可能性は低いかもしれない。Borg が述べる教師認知研究の課題に照らしてみても、英語教師のこころの研究の8つの視点は、日本という文脈を考慮した教師認知の質的調査方法に何らかの示唆を与えると考える。

研究（リサーチ）は教師の資質向上に欠かせないと言われる。しかし、言語教師の多くが学術研究に興味を持っているわけではなく、また、学術研究が実際に教える現場に具体的に役立つとは考えていない傾向にある。そのような現状を踏まえて、Borg (2010: 414)は教師がリサーチに関わる必要性を指摘し、リサーチは次の点で教師に役立つとしている。

- 自分の仕事を深く理解する（視点）  
(make deeper sense of their work (new ways of seeing))
- 実験の考えを授業に一致させる（行動）  
(identify ideas to experiment with in their classroom (new ways of doing))
- 教えることを考える場を広げる（話し合い）  
(extend their discourse for discussing teaching (new ways of talking))
- 理論面で自身の指導の妥当性を高める（知識）  
(validate with a theoretical rationale what they already do (new ways of knowing))



- 計画や意思決定のプロセスを検証する（思考）

(examine their planning and decision-making processes (new ways of thinking))

教師がリサーチに関わることにより、教師自身が、視点、行動、話し合い、知識、思考の面で成長することは重要であると考え、それだけでは日本の教育環境の文脈においては不十分であろうと考える。それを埋めるのがここで提案する8つの視点である。夏目漱石が体験した近代化（西洋化）と自我の問題は、英語教師が今日でも抱える多くの問題と共通していると考え、『こころ』を題材に教師認知の調査方法をここで提案した。

8つの視点の中で、「主観的情緒性」「複雑な感情の探索的な分析」「教師自身による個人の探求」「実践に根ざす探求」「こころの奥に潜む信念（ビリーフ）」は、教師自身が自己を見つめることにつながる。教師の成長において省察することが重要であることが推奨されているが、単に授業を振り返るだけでは何も本質は変わらない可能性がある。その点で重要な視点は、再帰的な省察あるいはリフレキシビティーに関連する「再現することの意味」である。教師一人ひとりの主観や情緒的な面を互いに共有することによって、Borg が指摘していない教師の「こころ」の複雑な側面を明らかにできる可能性がある。それは、教師がかかわる成長や教えることの「観察不可能な複雑な認知システム」や「予測不可能な認知と行動」の理解の解明につながると考える。

#### 4 具体的な調査研究方法

日本での言語教師認知の研究は、2008年のJACET Summer SeminarにSimon Borgが来たことをきっかけに広まったと言えるだろう。もちろん、それ以前にも教育心理学を中心に教師の信条（信念、ビリーフ）などの研究は多くなされている。また、アンケート調査などによる量的研究や、教師行動、教師思考、教師効果、教師像、省察、ナラティブ、教師の成長、ライフコース、ライフヒストリー、フィールドワーク、エスノグラフィーなど、様々な質的研究も進んでいるが、英語教育においては、まだ始まったばかりである。JACET言語教師認知研究会の活動が拡大し、これまでの応用言語学や教育心理学などの研究の枠組みに、教師認知の研究の意義が少しずつ浸透してきている。そこで、上記のことを踏まえて英語教師のこころを探究する質的調査方法を提案したい。

##### 4.1 再現性（遡行性）質的モデル化（Retrodictive Qualitative Modelling）（RQM）

Dörnyei (2011) が提案した複雑系ダイナミックシステム (Complex Dynamic

Systems)(CDS)の調査方法に、再現性（遡行性）質的モデル化（Retrodictive Qualitative Modelling）(RQM)がある。予測がむずかしい複雑な授業や学習者のメカニズムを研究する調査方法の一つとして提案したもので、従来から授業研究などで経験的に行われてきた方法の一つを体系化したと捉えられる。簡単に言えば、データを集め分析し、ある予測を立てるという方法の逆を行うことで、ある時点で特徴的に出ている結果を特定し、それを遡って分析するという方法である。その分析によって、ある典型的なパターン－署名ダイナミックス(signature dynamics)（いくつかの認証できる特徴を署名として利用する電子署名のこと）－を特定し、複雑な状況の把握に利用しようとする試案である。

複雑性理論(Complexity Theory)がこれまでの実証的研究を基盤とする第2言語習得(Second Language Acquisition)に新しい方向性を与えている(Larsen-Freeman, 2011)。Larsen-Freeman は、「第2言語発達(second language development)」という用語を用いて、言語習得は複雑であるが系統的であり、状況に応じて自己創出し、発達するという仮説を提唱した。その調査方法の一つとして再現性（遡行性）質的モデル化（RQM）がDörnyei (2011)によって提案された。これを教師認知の調査に応用しようと考えた。つまり、教師認知を複雑性システムと考え、その複雑性を理解する上で、ある時点での教師の状態を把握することにより、そこから背景を遡ることにより、特徴や要因を理解し、典型的なパターンとしての署名ダイナミックスを特定し、それを利用することにより、複雑な教師認知の理解を意図した。

Sasajima(2012)は、日本の中等教育の英語教師 10 人に対して教師認知の調査を実施し、これに近いアプローチで分析し、いくつかの特徴的なパターンを提示している。その調査結果によれば、日本の英語教師認知のいくつかの特徴として、「英語教師はある理想の授業にしばられている」「文化知識を教えることは生徒の動機付けとなる」「言語学的知識は教師の武器である」「生徒との情緒的な関係を大切にする」などを挙げ、いくつかの署名ダイナミックスを表す複雑系言語教師認知図を提示している。しかし、従来の研究のように、この分析結果を一般化することはない点が、再現性（遡行性）質的モデル化（RQM）の特徴である。分析結果は、あくまでその状況でのある特徴として捉え、次の教師認知の理解に役立てようとするのである。次に、この再現性（遡行性）質的モデル化（RQM）をもとに、具体的な英語教師のこころの研究調査方法を検討してみる。

#### 4.2 英語教師のこころの研究調査方法

まず、英語教師自身が、視点、行動、話し合い、知識、思考などの面で、リサーチをすることがこの研究調査の柱となる。理由は、自分自身でなければこころは探求できないか

らである。しかし、自分一人だけの探求では問題がある。『こころ』で示されるように、自分を見つめる他者と再帰的な関係性を維持することが重要である。さらには、場を共有する同僚あるいは同じ意識を持つ教師との共同も、再現性（遡行性）質的モデル化（RQM）のプロセスでは必要となる。具体的には、次のような話し合いの場を設けることから始める。

モデルとなるのは、JACET 言語教師認知研究会で実施している懇談会である（cf. JACET 言語教師認知研究会研究集録）。懇談会では、教員養成、教育実習、教員研修、熟練教師、教室言語などの話題について、インフォーマルに話し合うことを目的として実施してきた。何かある結論を求めるのではなく、各自の考え、実践、経験をもとにした自由な話の中で、現状を把握し、問題点を見つけ、互いに課題を共有することで、各自が自身の問題として意識し、次につなげるという趣旨で開催している。この懇談会を基盤に、再現性（遡行性）質的モデル化（RQM）のアイディアを取り入れて、次のようなリサーチの枠組を組み立ててみた。

#### 英語教師のこころの探求のリサーチの枠組

1. テーマの設定
2. テーマに沿った提案者（探求者）の設定
3. テーマに沿った共同探求者の設定
4. 探求者と共同探求者の関係性の構築
5. 探求者からのテーマに沿った課題の語り
6. 共同探求者からの探求者への質問
7. 探求者の語りの深化
8. 探求者と共同探求者によるテーマの図式化（再現、遡行）
9. いくつかのテーマの典型パタンの抽出
10. テーマの特徴的な典型パターン（署名ダイナミック）を再現

このようなリサーチを行うにあたり、分析のポイントとして、先に示した「主観的情緒性」「複雑な感情の探索的な分析」「実践に根ざす探求」「観察不可能な複雑な認知システム」「予測不可能な認知と行動」「こころの奥に潜む信念（ビリーフ）」の各視点に留意しながら探求を実施する。調査の信頼性、妥当性を高めるためには、当然この手順を明確に示す正確な記録が重要となる。しかし、客観性やデータの提示にばかり注意が向くのではなく、あくまで探求者のこころに焦点を当てるのが最も大切であることを忘れては

いけない。調査の意義は、「再現することの意味」であり、「教師自身による個人の探求」にある。一般化や理論化することではない。

## 5. まとめ

発達心理学に「心の理論(Theory of Mind)」という「心理状況が自分自身にも他者にもある」という考え方がある(Premack & Woodruff, 1978)。つまり、他者の心の動きを推測し、他者が自分とは異なる信念（ビリーフ）などを持っているということが分かるという機能のことを指している。人間の子供はある時期までにこの能力を発達させるが、他の動物にはそれがないという。英語教師のこころの研究は、ある意味で「心の理論」を探索的に探求しようとする試みでもある。

本稿では、漱石が『こころ』で表現しようとした文学的試みを言語教師認知の研究への応用を提案した。方法論的には課題も多々あることは承知しているが、これをきっかけに、また、批判に応えながら、英語教師のこころの研究を発展させたい。

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# 言語教室における Teacher Gesture の考察 —足場掛けの視点から—

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## 1. はじめに

文部科学省が2002年に『英語が使える日本人』の育成のための戦略構想』を提言後、その構想は未達成だという見方が多い中、2012年には、「グローバル人材育成推進事業」を打ち出し、「国際的な産業競争力の向上や国と国の絆の強化の基盤として、グローバルな舞台に積極的に挑戦し活躍できる人材の育成を図る」ためには、世界共通言語である英語力獲得が必須条件だと主張している。しかし、依然として日本人学習者の英語力の低さや、その原因として英語教授の非効率性や不効果を指摘する声が止むことはない。

高等学校学習指導要領（文部科学省, 2009）では、「生徒の理解に応じた英語を授業で行う」、「授業は英語で行うことを基本とする」とし、英語を目標言語の英語で教えようという機運が高まっている昨今、より効果的な教授方法を探索するためには、まず、教室で英語がどのように教えられていて、教師が学習者の言語学習・言語習得にどう関わっているかを把握する必要があるだろう。この問題に対しては多様なアプローチがあるが、言語習得論、応用言語学の分野では1970～1980年代より Care Taker Talk (Motherese), Foreigner Talk, Teacher Talk など、談話的特徴が盛んに研究されており、養育者や教師は、成人同士の通常の会話とは異なる話し方をすることで、言語知識や運用においてハンディがある子どもや学習者にも分かりやすいインプットや足場掛け(Scaffolding, a teaching strategy indicating the support that enables a learner to complete a task/s/he would not have been able to carry out without assistance; Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976)を提供していることが報告されている（セクション2参照）。

これらの談話研究では、言語モードの分析が主たるもので非言語モードに対する視点はほとんどみられなかったが、1980年代に言語心理学、文化人類学などの分野で身ぶり研究やマルチモーダル・コミュニケーション研究が盛んになり、言語や言語使用をより包括的にみる必要性が問われるようになった。マルチモーダル・コミュニケーションでは、言語情報とともに、非言語情報（身ぶり、うなずき、姿勢、表情、視線、声の調子、笑い、沈黙、空間、道具など）が考察対象になるが、その中でも身ぶりは言語とともに、情報だけでなく、話者の思考、意図、関心、感情を伝え、会話や相互行為を調整し、聞き手との人間関係を調整する（Kendon, 2005; McNeill, 1992）とされている。

1990年代以降、言語習得論、応用言語学においても Teacher Talk における身ぶりが考察がされるようになり現在に至っている。しかしながら、言語教授の実際を、身ぶりをはじめとするマルチモーダルな視点から考察する研究は、まだ数少なく、実証的研究が待たれている。

本稿では、まず、言語的支援を要する子ども、外国人、言語学習者に対するレジスター(Register, 場面や使用者によって変化する言語)の言語的・非言語的特徴を概観し、後者、特に学習者に向けて産出される Teacher Gesture（教師の身ぶり）に焦点を当て、その談話行為を観

察し可視化する。そして、Teacher Gesture を含む言語教授におけるマルチモダリティ研究の必要性を示したい。

## 2. 言語的に未発達な聞き手・学習者に対する言語的足場掛け

第1言語習得論で報告されている幼い子どもに対する足場掛けである Care Taker Talk は、その使用目的や談話的特徴が、第2言語あるいは外国語学習に対する足場掛けである Foreigner Talk, Teacher Talk に相似しているため、後者と併せて、ここで概観する。

Care Taker Talk, Foreigner Talk, Teacher Talk はいずれも、話者が話者よりも言語レベルの低い相手と話す時に、その言語を変化させる談話行為（Register の一種）であり、話者は聞き手との関係により社会的・心理的な評価を行い、使用する言語コミュニケーション・コードを選択し、発話を変化させる(Accommodation)。具体的には、聞き手が「理解しやすいように」という配慮（Comprehensible Input/Interaction の提供）や、理解を可能にする足場掛けにより聞き手の言語的発達を促す。また、話者が聞き手と理解し合いたいという心理的動機や、聞き手の発話やその意図を理解しなくてはならないという社会的動機、聞き手が言語を学びやすいようにという教育的動機から使われる手段とも言える。

### 2.1 Care Taker Talk, Foreigner Talk, Teacher Talk の特徴

Chaudron (1988), Ellis (1994) の文献レビューによると、Care Taker Talk の特徴は以下に大別される。a) simplified grammar and meaning, b) shorter sentences, c) more restricted range of sentence patterns, d) expansion and repetition of sentences, e) basic vocabulary use, f) slower speech, g) high pitch, h) more frequent and longer pauses (the speaker plans more), i) exaggerated and simplified pronunciation, j) large number of questions and utterances with high rising intonation (for feedback), k) embedded in the here and now, and l) gesture、つまり、幼い子どもよりも、ことばやコミュニケーション運用能力に優れた Care Taker のアコモデーションは、言語面（語彙、統語、談話レベル）、非言語面（音声、身ぶり）で観察される。

次に、Care Taker Talk の典型例を見てみよう。幼い子どもの母親は、子どもが会話のキーワードである指示対象を言えるよう発話を促したり、指示対象を繰り返して確認したりする。また、通常の疑問文を提示した後に、文法的により分かりやすい肯定文による疑問に変えて繰り返すコミュニケーションおよび教育的な配慮が観察される。

Mother: What do you want?

Child: (no answer)

Mother: You want what? [referent prompts]

Child: I want milk.

Mother: You want what? [say referent again]

Child: Milk.

Data source: DePaulo & Bovillian, 1978 cited in Hatch, 1983, p. 162

以下は、Foreigner Talk の典型例である。Care Taker Talk 同様、繰り返しが多く、NS は NNS が理解できなかった質問に対し、小さな変化による多様なパラフレーズで NNS の理解を促す足場掛けをしている。(N=Native Speaker, NNS=Nonnative Speaker)

NS: Well, you can ask anyone how to get there?  
NNS: What? What?  
NS: Most, most people know how to get here. Many people know how to get here, okay?  
NNS: How to what?  
NS: Many people know how to get here.  
NNS: How together?  
NS: Yeah, how to get to the restaurant.  
NNS: And get to the restaurant.  
NS: Yeah, okay?

Data source: Hatch, Shapira, & Gough, 1978 cited in Hatch, 1983

ESL 教室での Teacher Talk では、教師が答えを知っていて学習者の語彙や統語に対する理解を確認するための指示質問 (Display Question) をパラフレーズをしたり、学習者の発話を統語的に完成させて繰り返す談話的特徴が観察される。

T: Do you know what this is?  
S: Egg.  
T: This is an egg. An egg. And what do we do with an egg?  
S: You crack it. In a bowl.  
T: You crack it. In a bowl.  
S: (In Korean) We eat that.  
T: Right. And we call this an egg.

Data source: Young, 1974 cited in Hatch, 1992, p.95

このような教師による足場掛けは、言語だけでなく身ぶりでも行われる。以下は、ESL 教室で教師が“bath”と “bathe”を説明している場面であるが、浴室で身体を洗う様子を身ぶりで示し、非言語で情報を伝達している。

T: In your house...you...  
house...a tub...you  
(gesture) wash.



### 3. 言語的に未発達な学習者に対する非言語的足場掛け：Teacher Gesture

前掲の Hatch (1983)による報告では、身ぶり使用が言及されているに過ぎないが、Hauge (2000) は、Teacher Talk における身ぶり(Teacher Gesture)を観察し、両者を教師の Twin Strategies と呼び、インプットと学習関心面で重要な教授レパートリーであると論じている。

Kusanagi (2005a, 2005b) の先行研究レビューと EFL 教室観察から、Teacher Gesture には大別すると4つの働き a) gesture as input : comprehension aid, b) gestures used for classroom management, c) gestures influencing learners' emotional state, d) gestures as mediation in classroom interaction があることが確認された。身ぶりの特徴には、動作として一つあるいは一連の身ぶりには、一つ以上の働きを併せ持つことが多い。これらの機能は、EFL 環境下で産出される Teacher Gesture (Kusanagi, 2001, 2003; Lazaraton & Ishihara, 2005; Sime, 2008,)、ESL 環境下で産出される Teacher Gesture (Hauge, 2000; Lazaraton, 2004; McCafferty, 2002; Quinlisk, 2008) に共通するものである。但し、同じ教授目的のために産出される身ぶりでも、教師が目標言語の母語話者である場合には、その言語文化特有の身ぶり(Emblem) (例えば、英語圏において “I don't know.” と発話すると同時に肩をすくめる身ぶりなど) が使われることもあり、その面においては母語話者の教師、非母語話者の教師の間での身ぶり産出に違いが観察される。EFL 環境下では Emblem の使用を避けると言及する教師もあり (Kusanagi, 2003)、身ぶり産出に個人差があろう。

Teacher Gesture の普遍的側面は、聞き手である学習者の母語の違いに関わらず観察されている (Allen, 2000; Antes, 1996; Barnett, 1883; Carels, 1981; Hauge, 2000; Kusanagi, 2001, 2003, 2005b, Lazaraton, 2004; Lazaraton & Ishihara, 2005; McCafferty, 2002; Sime, 2006, Quinlisk, 2008; Ward & von Raffler-Engel, 1980)。

学習者の目標言語の習熟度によっても教師の身ぶり産出頻度は異なる。Kusanagi (2003)の事例研究によると、同一の教師が教える初級クラスで産出された身ぶりは、入門クラスで産出された身ぶりの 56%であった。言語運用能力が低い学習者には、より多くの身ぶりが使われる傾向が観察されているが、次セクションにみるとおり、中級クラスにおいても身ぶりが使われている。

以下、本稿では、目標言語で教授する授業において、自然産出された Teacher Gesture の観察例を示し、通常見えにくい教授活動とその機能の実際を可視化して考察する。セクション 3.1, 3.2, 3.3 では、EFL 状況下である日本の都市部にある私立大学での英語選択授業を観察する。セクション 3.4 では、JSL 状況下である日本の都市部にある国立大学院での日本語選択授業(単位は付与されない)を観察する。両クラスの教員とも、言語を教える前に高等学校で社会を教えていた経験があり、授業では言語以外の知識提供も豊富で、同僚教員や受講学生からの評価が高い。

#### 3.1 Gesture as Input: Comprehension Aid

身ぶりはことばを補完する。上述の談話 (Hatch, 1983) は、その一例である。“wash”という

語を全く知らない学習者でも、その動作を見れば新出語の理解も容易になる。また、身ぶりには「パラフレーズ方略」として、学習者にとって複雑で曖昧な言語形式（語彙、文法等）を、ことばと身ぶり、あるいは身ぶりだけで提示することにより、その意味を明快に示す機能がある。従って、特に言語レベルが低い学習者（初級、中級下レベル）には、身ぶりがリスニングの理解を促進する効果があると言われている（Hague, 2000; Kida, 2008; Kusanagi, 2003; Lazaraton, 2004）。例えば、“tree”という語（signe/sign）を説明する際、tree という綴りや、/tri:/ という音声記号（significant/signifier）が、伝達する意味内容、概念、イメージ（signifié/signified）である「木」を言語情報（ことば）に併せて非言語情報（身ぶり）で伝達することにより、その言語情報を補完あるいは強化することができる。“tree”のような具体物の説明では、ことばで説明（e.g., A tree is a plant with trunk, branches, and leaves）するよりも、木の具体的な形を身ぶりで表象の方が直感的かつ即時に理解することが可能だ。

このような教授方略により、ことばによる説明の繰り返し（冗長性）や、説明時の学習者の母語使用を避けることができる（Antes, 1996）。そのため、授業前に準備していない事柄（unplanned explanations=その場で学習者が質問したこと、学習者が理解に困難さを抱える学習事項）に対して、その場その場で学習ニーズに応じて効率的に教授することも可能となる（Lazaraton, 2004; Lazaraton & Ishihawa, 2005）。つまり、身ぶりは、他の視覚情報（絵、写真、グラフ、表、模型、実物等）同様に、学習者の学習ニーズに対応しうる教授資源であり、Teacher Gesture はマルチ・モーダルなコミュニケーション手段の一つと言える。

このように Teacher Gesture は学習者の学習理解を助ける側面がある一方で、教師の使用言語を簡略化するため、学習者の統語や談話能力獲得を妨げる側面もあるのではないか、という指摘もある（Kida, 2008）。

Transcript 1 は、英語母語話者が教える大学での英語中級クラスで、課題プロジェクトの口頭発表の説明をしている場面である。発話 1 の “a clear idea” に伴う頭を指差す身ぶりは “idea” の意味を補完し、“your organization” に伴う上から下へ左手を 3 回動かす身ぶりは、口頭発表原稿構成における 3 つのトピックを、想像上の身ぶりで表された発表原稿上の位置と発表の時間的流れを手の動きで示すことによって speech organization の概念をことばで細かく説明せずに身ぶりで提示している。発話 2 では、発表準備後に発表するという時間軸のシフトを身ぶりで表している。“you can” では肯定のうなずきにより、この発話内容が強化されている。発話 3 では、肩をすくめる英語の Emblem で否定ステイメントを補完している。発話 4 では、発話 3 と同じ身ぶりをパラフレーズした発話に伴わせている。発話パラフレーズは同じメッセージを異なる統語、語彙で再度示して強調しているが、発話 3 “I’m not” と同じ身ぶりフォームを示すことにより、聞き手に対して、異なることばであるが意味的に同じメッセージであることを伝えており、ここでも意味の補完機能と談話の結合性機能（coherence）が観察される。発話 5 の身ぶりでは、この説明を聞いている時点で、聞き手である学生は you であり、将来発表する時点では “audience” でもある聞き手を、手で指し示して指示対象を明らかにする話し手の意図が見られる。やはり発話内容に呼応して、発話後にうなずきが見られる。

この例が示すように、Teacher Gesture の観察により、身ぶりは、あることばの概念を視覚情

報で補完して示し、その場の環境に存在する物（この例では人）を活用し指示対象を明確にしたりする教師のエコロジカルな教授努力を明らかにすることができる。

=Transcript 1=

- 1 T: I think you should have a clear idea of your organization,  
|{points at left head with LIF}| |{raises LH, moves it down x3}|
- 2 T: and then you present. ( . ) you can ( . ) present easily.  
□ □  
|{moves LH forward}| {moves LH back and forth}| |{moves LH back and forth}|
- 3 T: I'm not looking for perfect English. | I'm not.  
|{extends BA to sides, shrugs shoulders}| |{extends BA a little further}|
- 4 T: I'm looking for you to be comfortable.  
|{extends BA to sides}|
- 5 T: making your topic interesting. | for the audience. (0.3)  
□ □ □  
|{moving LH forward}| |{circles LH toward Ss}|

### 3.2 Gestures Used for Classroom Management

教室という場面ではなく、各種の講演、デモンストレーション、案内など教授活動に類似する説明時にも身ぶりがよく使われる。先行研究 (Allen, 1999; Barnett, 1983; Neill, 1991; Sime, 2006) によると、Teacher Gesture には、学習項目への注目、学習への参加促し、発言権の提示、学習者の発話増加、授業内での学習活動の移行提示、フィードバック提示、教室運営と規律等の機能があると報告されている。

Transcript 2 は、Transcript 1 と同じ談話からの例で、課題プロジェクトの準備方法を、ハンドアウトを示しながら説明している場面である。発話 1 と 2 ではハンドアウトを指したり、持ち上げて示して「今、ハンドアウトの内容を説明するのだ」ということを聞き手に示している。

発話 3 では、教師からみて “20 males” を右方向、“20 females” を左方向に指し示し、異なる指示対象を別方向の空間にそれぞれ配置して、聞き手が談話中の二つの指示対象を聴覚情報だけでなく視覚情報からも認知しやすいようにしている。このような指差しは “Deictic” (McNeill, 1992) と呼ばれ、話し手・聞き手が存在するその場の物を指す (Concrete Deictic) だけでなく、談話中に現出するその場に存在しない抽象的な概念などを示す (Abstract Deictic) ことも多い。McNeill は後者の身ぶりを、話者がつくる比喩的な類像であると言う。Transcript 2 の談話でも、教師の右側に 20 males、左側に 20 females がその場に実際にいる訳ではなく、これら二つの指示対象を空間比喩として示し、聞き手に二つの指示対象を明示している。

このような身ぶりによる空間使用は、一つの談話に繰り返し産出されることが多く、談話の結合性 (Coherence) や結束性 (Cohesion) を視覚的に表し、聞き手の注意を引き付けるとともに、聞き手の理解の一助になると考えられる。McNeill (1992) はこのような身ぶりを

“Cohesives” と名づけている。

“Gestural cohesion depends on repeating the same gesture form, movement, or locus in the gesture space: the repetition is what signals the continuity” (McNeill, 1992, p. 16).

また、これらの身ぶりは、同時に二つのモードで伝達情報を補完する機能もある。このように、一つ（または一連）の身ぶりが一つ以上の機能を持つ場合が多々ある。特に、授業が目標言語のみで教えられる場合、このような身ぶりは学習者の認知的負担度を軽減するだろう。

=Transcript 2=

- 1 T: using a questionnaire, the questionnaire  
|{points to left with LIF}|
- 2 T: I showed you, advertisements. You can use that. (0.2)  
|{lifts up pinched LH high}|
- 3 T: and you know 20 males, 20 females ask.  
|{points at handouts in RH with LH}| |{moves LH to left}|

### 3.3 Gestures Influencing Learners' Emotional State

Gesture as input、Gestures used for classroom management、これらの機能を持つ身ぶりは、特に言語レベルの低い学習者への教授や、新しく複雑な言語知識を初めて紹介する時に、その教授を効率化することができる (Antes, 1996; Carels, 1981; Kusanagi, 2003; Lazaraton, 2004; Lazaraton & Ishihara, 2005)。

一方、Teacher Gesture には、上述の理解促進や説明の効率を上げるエコロジカルな側面だけではなく、教室コミュニティの成員である教師と学習者の間で肯定的な情意的環境を整え、ひいては学習動機や学習姿勢に影響を与えることが示唆されている。先行研究によると、マイムなどの身ぶりは学習者を楽しませ、情意フィルター (affective filter) を軽減させ、グループの結束性 (group cohesion) と連帯 (solidarity) を強め、教師と学習者の間で親密な信頼関係を築くことに貢献すると言われている (Allen, 2000; Barnett, 1983; Sime, 2006; Quinlisk, 2008; Ward & von Raffler-Engel, 1980)。

Transcript 3 は、Transcript 1 と 2 と同じ教室で産出された談話である。発話 1 は、教師は Gestures Used for Classroom Management 機能の一つである発言者の指定である。S2 (女子) を拳で指し示すことで S2 に発言権を渡すことを示しているが、ことばではなく身ぶりで発言を求めている。教師と S2 の間では、アイコンタクトやうなずきにより、発言権の譲与と受け取り交渉がことばを介在することなく行われているが、2 秒の沈黙が S2 の躊躇いや困惑を表している。その後、S2 は日本語の Emblem 「可愛い」 (=両頬を人差し指で指す) をみせる。この身ぶり行為は、クラス全員の笑いを誘い出した。発話 3 で教師は、“good”ということばと、S2 を指し示す身ぶりで S2 の身ぶり行為を承認している。その後、発話 4 で S10 に同様の発言権を指定

する。発話 7~9 では、S10 と教師の間で、やはり発言権の譲与と受け取りが、ことば、視線、うなずきで交渉されている。S10 (男子) の躊躇は、2 秒の沈黙 (通常談話において、2 秒の沈黙は長いとされているため、この沈黙はためらいを表しているだろう)、困惑の表情、上半身を後方にそらす姿勢、頭を掻く身ぶり (Self-adaptor=話し手自身のために産出される身ぶりで grooming gestures と呼ばれる)、“cute?”という確認の発話によく表れている。また、S10 の英語から日本語へのコードスイッチされた発話 (発話 7 の “kyu:to”「キュート?」、発話 8 の “u:n”「うへん」) は、上述の自分自身のために産出された身ぶり (Self-adaptor) と同様に、Private Speech (Intra-psychological Speech) と考えられる。

Vygotsky (1986)によると、子どもは難しいタスクに取り組む時や、教師や親の助けなしにタスクに取り組む時に Private Speech をより多く産出する。Vygotsky は、Private Speech には行動および感情の自己調整機能があると言う。発話 8 で、S10 は S2 の産出した身ぶりを再現し、クラス全員の笑いと拍手を誘っている。同一の談話場面で産出された同じフォームの身ぶりであるため、上述の談話の結合性や結束性の機能をも有しているとも言えるが、このように話者間での模倣身ぶりは、話者間の非言語的同調性を示していると言えよう。

一つの談話の中での、このような非言語的同調のやり取りは、情意の共有に基づくクラス内の雰囲気築くとともに、談話の結合性や結束性をつくり出している。動機づけ研究の第一人者である (Dörnyei, 2001) は、動機づけに貢献する教師の行動の一つに、学習者を支援する楽しいクラスの雰囲気づくりを挙げており、その一つの要素として「ユーモア」を推奨している。Greatbatch & Clark (2003)による講義の談話分析でも、ユーモアや笑いはグループ結束性を強化する要素の一つであると報告している。発話 9 で S10 は、S10 に対する級友の反応 (笑い) を受容するうなずきをみせ、発話 10 では教師が英語エンブレム (親指を立てる= good)、笑顔、発話 “Well, excellent.”で S10 の行為を承認している。

この例では、教師の求めで産出された学生的身ぶり行為が、ユーモアや寸劇 (a comical performance) に似たエンターテイメント要素を教室にもたらしめているが、Transcript 4 (Transcript 3 のすぐ後に産出された談話)の発話 2 で表されているように、このような機能を持つマイム的身ぶりを、教師も、しばしば行うことがある。Greatbatch & Clark (2003) による講義中のユーモアや笑いの会話分析によると、ユーモアや笑いは、グループの結束性と連帯を強めるだけではなく、これらが効果的に使われた時、聴衆の注意や集中を高め、講演者の話の内容やメッセージをより記憶しやすくすると報告している。筆者が観察したこのクラスの学習者 5 名との個別授業後面談でも、このような教師の身ぶりは、教師への親しみを増すとともに、授業にアクセントを与え、飽きさせないのでよいと肯定的に評価している。

=Transcript 3=

1            T:        S2, give me a gesture or expression for cute. ° Yeah °.

□

|{raises fists, beats them toward S2 x3}|

((looks at S2))

2 S2: ((looks at teacher)) (0.2) | \_\_\_\_\_ |  
 |{points at her cheeks with index fingers, tilts head to left side}|  
 ((Ss burst into laughter))

3 T: yeah, good. | \_\_\_\_\_ | good.  
 |{points at S2 with left index finger}|

4 T: and then ask a man. S10, give me an expression |for <cute.>|  
 |{revolves RH x2}|((looks at S10)) |{claps hands on chest}| |{extends BH, then  
 clasps hands}|  
 ((Ss looks at S10, smile and giggle))

5 S10: cute?  
 | \_\_\_\_\_ |  
 ((looks at teacher)) ((smiles indicating S10 is feeling little awkward))

6 T: yeah. (0.2)  
 | \_\_\_\_\_ |

7 S10: *kyu:to?* ((lean upper body to right, scratches head with RH)) (0.2)  
 | \_\_\_\_\_ |  
 “Cute?”

8 S10: *u:n.* | \_\_\_\_\_ |  
 |{places fists on cheeks}|  
 “Umm.”  
 ((Ss burst into laughter, clap hands))

9 S10: | \_\_\_\_\_ | | \_\_\_\_\_ |

10 T: | \_\_\_\_\_ | well, okay, excellent.  
 |{thumbs RH to S10}| ((Smiles))

=Transcript 4=

1 T: Also, even simple things |like even music.| ( . ) What would, maybe  
 |{revolves LH over handout on desk}| |{revolves LH}|

2 T: S2 will do a guitar and I will do a flute. ( . )  
 |{mimes to play the guitar}| |{mimes to play the flute}|

3 T: You know again getting the stereotypes of what instruments people play ( . )

{revolves BH alternately x5}

4 T: and so on. Anyway, very interesting stuff you can choose.

{moves BH, palms down to sides alternately x3}

### 3.4 Gestures as Mediation in Classroom Interaction

Teacher Gesture は、最近接発達領域 (Zone of proximal development, ZPD; Vygotsky, 1978, 1986) の面でも研究されている。ZPD とは、子どもが自力である課題を解決できる（あることができる・分かる）知的水準と、他者の助けを借りれば解決できる知的水準との差における領域のことである。学習者が自分一人で出来ないことも、教師が適切な課題を提示しながら相互行為を行うことで、新しい知を獲得できる。McCafferty (2002) によると、ことばを捜している学習者に、そのことばを身ぶりとともに提示すると、その学習者は教師が提示した身ぶりを模倣し、その後、そのことばを使う時にその身ぶりを使用したことが報告されている。同様の学習者による模倣身ぶりは Kusanagi (2005b) でも観察されている。

Transcript 5 は、日本の大学院で日本語母語話者である教師が教える中級日本語教室での談話である。この場面では、学習者が順番に朝日新聞「天声人語」の文章を、2、3行読み上げ、教師がコラム内で使われている語彙や表現とともに、日本の文化や歴史背景を解説している場面である。ここでは「彫刻家イサム・ノグチ」に関して、また「彫刻」という語を豊かな身ぶり表現で説明している。

発話2の教師の身ぶりは、話者自身のための Self-adaptor であるが、発話3で、話者である教師の身体の位置を基点に、「アメリカ」は身ぶりで話者の前方空間を示し、今ここである日本ではない別の国ということを表している。子どもや学習者に対する教師のアコモデーションの特徴に、「今、ここ」 (Here & Now) の情報提供が挙げられる。身ぶりを使うことで「今、ここ」の文脈を創り出し、学習者の認知的負荷を低くすることができる。教師は、その後、「活躍」(めざましく活動すること)を、右手を回す身ぶりでその様子を表している。また、指折り数える身ぶりで彫刻、造園というノグチが行なった活動の数を示す。両腕を広げる身ぶりは「庭」(広い場所) という意味を表す。

発話5で、教師が「彫刻」(ほりきざむ)の動作を示した後、発話6で学生が「あ:」、発話7で学生が「ちょうこく?」と「彫刻」という語の不理解を示した後、教師は発話8~11で文字情報としての「彫刻」を黒板に書いて示している。その際、漢字だけでなくひらがなでも提示している。発話12では、左手にノミを持ち、右手で槌を叩いて彫るマイムで「彫刻」を表す。それを見た学習者 S8 と S1 は、教師の身ぶりを模倣する。S8 の身ぶりをみて、隣の S7 がうなずく。

ここでは、「彫刻」は学習者にとって新しい語彙であったが、音声・文字情報だけでは理解が困難な学習者にも、身ぶりという視覚情報を通じて適切な足場掛けすることで新出語の理解を促している。発話13, 14, 16に見られる身ぶりを模倣し合う相互行為から、学習者が新しい

知識を獲得しつつある認知過程を示している。ただし、この観察からだけでは、これらの模倣身ぶりが、学習者が教師の身体動作を再現（mimicking）するだけのレベルにあるのか、より高次の段階である教師の身体動作をしながら、その身体動作の意味や意図を再現(imitation)しているレベルなのかは判別できない。

また、学習者のこれらの身ぶりを Private Speech として捉えることも可能であろう。Private Speech としての身ぶりは、情意的機能だけでなく、ワーキング・メモリーを助ける(Vygotsky, 1986)、身ぶり動作による思考 (Spatio-motoric Thinking; Kita, 2000)など、認知的機能が指摘されており、メタ言語レベルでの自己調整としての Private Speech 機能をみることが出来る。

このように、非常に短い時間の教授でも、教師は教室環境にあるさまざまなコミュニケーション・モード（音声、文字、身ぶり）、物（テキスト、黒板、身体）を適宜駆使して教授活動を行なっていることが理解された。

=Transcript 5=

- 1 T で↑ その: イサム・ノグチですけど >この人< カタカナでしょう、名前が
- 2 T これはお父さんが |えっと 日本人で、お母さんがアメリカ人で、あの:|(.)  
{|左手であごを触る|}
- 3 T |アメリカで、|(.) |活躍|した人なの。芸術活動。で、彼は↑ |彫刻|とか: |庭?|  
{|左手を前方に差し出す|}{|右手を回す|}{|右手で指折り数える|}{|両腕を外へ広げる|}
- 4 S? うん.
- 5 T |彫刻?|  
{|右手で彫る動作×3|}
- 6 S? あ:
- 7 S? ちょうこく?
- 8 T そう:  
((黒板に「彫刻」と書く))
- 9 T え ちょっと待って,  
((黒板に書いた字を消す))
- 10 T 変なふうになってきた.  
((もう一度書く))
- 11 T 彫刻.  
((黒板にひらがなで「ちょうこく」と書く))
- 12 T |  
{|彫る動作, 左手にノミを持ち、右手で槌を持ち彫る動作|}
- 13 S8 |  
{|彫る動作, 左手にノミを持ち、右手で槌を持ち彫る動作|}  
((S8 に S7 がうなずく))
- 14 S1 |



- {彫る動作, 左手にノミを持ち、右手で槌を持ち彫る動作}
- 15 T \_\_\_\_\_  
{彫る動作, 左手にノミを持ち、右手で槌を持ち彫る動作}
- 16 S1 \_\_\_\_\_  
{彫る動作, 左手にノミを持ち、右手で槌を持ち彫る動作}
- 17 T そう: そう: あと庭↓  
{両腕を外側に広げる}
- 18 S3 庭もつくったんですか?
- 19 T えっ?

#### 4 まとめ

本稿では、教室現場において言語的に支援を必要とする学習者に対して、教師が日々どのように足場掛けを提供しているのか、その一端を可視化するため、教師の発話と身ぶりを考察した。Teacher Gesture は、Teacher Talk とともに、必要に応じて、教師にとって重要な教授方法・方略であり、資源であることが理解された。これらを適切に使うことにより、いわば「空白」の空間に文脈を創出して視覚的に提示し、学習者の理解を助け、学習における相互行為を円滑にする特徴が明らかになった。また、エンターテイメント性のある身ぶり動作は、教室の雰囲気リラックスさせ、より親しみのある教室コミュニティづくりに貢献し、学習しやすい環境をつくる可能性が示唆された。このように、Teacher Gesture は認知、社会性、双方の側面から考察することが可能である。単に教室という「箱」としての空間に教師と学習者が存在しているだけでは両者にとって意味のある授業にはならない。「空白の箱」にもなりえる教室を、身ぶりを含めた効果的な足場掛けによって学習者が学習しやすい環境やコミュニティを創り出すことができよう。

外国語の効果的教授のあり方を探索するためには「良い教師とは何か」、「良い教え方とは何か」を考察することが、その目的の一助になるだろう。この観点から言うと、教師には学習者が何をいつ必要としているのか、提供する言語はどの程度のレベルで、どの程度の量が必要なのかを、教授の場で即座に察知して選択する能力が必要である。また、その時に、どの言語コミュニケーション・モードを用いて提供すると、より効果的なのか判断する能力も必要である。

今後の研究では、Teacher Gesture の教授効果、異なるコミュニケーション・モードでの教授効果の違いを、さらに明らかにしたい。その際、学習者の学習言語習熟度、文化的・社会的属性、教師の文化的・社会的属性、教育機関やコンテキストの社会的背景を視野に入れつつ、Teacher Gesture の普遍性と個別性（文化、個人差）をも考慮した考察が必要である。その上で、熟練教師の知と技としての Teacher Gesture を明らかにし、指導者を目指す学生への、その知と技の継承方法を考えてみたい。

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## 付録

### ***Transcription Conventions: The modified Jefferson Transcription System***

- ( . ) a short pause
- (0.1) a one second pause
- co:lon extension of the sound or syllable
- . fall intonation (final)
- , continuing intonation (non-final: flat and low rise)

?	rising intonation (final)
ˊ	a rise stronger than comma but weaker than a question mark
↓	sharp fall
↑	sharp rise
° °	passage of talk that is quieter than surrounding talk
< >	passage of talk that is slower than surrounding talk
> <	passage of talk that is faster than surrounding talk
(guess)	the words within a single bracket indicate the transcriber's best guess at an unclear utterance
( )	unidentifiable utterance
(( ))	comment by the transcriber
<i>italics</i>	Japanese utterances
“ ”	idiomatic translation of Japanese utterances
<u>gesture</u>	the presence of a gesture(s) with speaker's speech
<u>      </u>	the presence of a gesture(s) without speech by performer
{     }	a description of gestural form(s)
_	a nod
×2	the same action(s) two times
T	teacher's utterances
S1	student 1's utterances
BH	both hands
RH	right hand
LH	left hand
RH	right hand
BA	both arms
RA	right arm
LA	left arm
RIF	right index finger
LIF	left index finger

Romanization      The Hepburn system of Romanization is used in transcribing data.

# The Nature of Classroom Discourse in Contextually Appropriate Communicative Language Teaching: A case study of Japanese pre-service teachers in Thailand

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## Introduction

### *A tentative definition of contextually appropriate communicative language teaching in the Japanese context*

In reviewing the literature on communicative language teaching (CLT), Littlewood (2011) concludes that it is an umbrella term that incorporates a range of principles with which most teachers would agree, rather than a specific set of techniques. The ultimate goal of CLT is to teach students “to be able to use the language effectively for their communicative needs” (p.196). CLT has a strong form and a weak form, but many educators misinterpret CLT as the strong form (Littlewood, 2011). The strong form of CLT stipulates that English is learned solely through communication, and grammar instruction is not necessary. On the other hand, according to Kumaravadivelu (2009), the weak form adds an element of communication to the conventional form-focused syllabus rather than abandon it. Given the abstract nature of CLT, many studies on implementing communicative approaches in non-western contexts stress the need for contextually appropriate teaching approaches (Edge & Richards, 1998; Hu, 2005; Littlewood, 2011; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Sakui, 2004).

Currently in Japan, what could be interpreted as a weak form of CLT is advocated in such popular English teaching methodology guides as Izumi (2009), Sato (2012), Takashima (2011), Tajiri (2009), and Nakashima (2000) among others. Whether the content be “focus on form,” “teaching methodology grounded in SLA,” or a renowned educator’s personal practice, these guides share the commonality that both language form and meaningful communication are prominent in their methodologies. In the Japanese context, I will consider contextually appropriate CLT as language teaching whose goal is to help students learn language for their communicative needs by providing form-focused language teaching, classroom content relevant to their context, and opportunities for meaningful communication.

### *What are obstacles to realizing contextually appropriate communicative language teaching in the Japanese context?*

Because CLT and Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) are often used in the same sentence when describing foreign language teaching reforms in Asian contexts (For example, see Butler, 2011; Littlewood, 2007), it is necessary to differentiate between the two. I will take the position of Kumaravadivelu (2009) in interpreting task as curricular content rather than as a methodological

construct. In other words, CLT supplies the theoretical bases for language teaching and learning, and “task” is a means to match curricular content to CLT principles.

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) first made communicative competence a goal in the Course of Study for English education in junior and senior high schools in 1989 in what was called a “landmark” policy move (Savignon, 2005). Since then, various policy measures and reforms have been introduced in an attempt to make English education in junior and senior high schools more communicative. Although an abundance of resources related to CLT are available (An example of some of these are Ano & Ota, 2011; Erisugawa, 2012; Fujii, Ashton, & Honda, 2008; Higuchi, Namimatsu, & Izumi, 2012; Honda, 2011; Izumi, 2009; Matsumura, 2012; Sato, 2012; Tajiri, 2009; Takashima, 2011), it is generally accepted that little has changed. This phenomenon is not unique to Japan (Nunan, 2003), and Butler (2011) gives the following reasons for why CLT and TBLT have not been adopted by educators in many Asian Pacific countries: (a) conceptual constraints (misconceptions regarding CLT/TBLT); (b) classroom-level constraints (various student and teacher-related factors, classroom management practices, and resource availability); and (c) societal-institutional level constraints (curricula and examination systems).

What can be concluded from this is that student-teachers need to learn how to address both form and meaningful communication in their classes. However, in a study of teacher-trainee’s TBLT lessons, I found that when student-teachers tend to focus on learner communication and did not consider how to link the tasks to language learning or communicative strategies (Hall, Sato, Koga, & Konno, 2011). In this case, the demand of conducting a class primarily in English and keeping the learners focused on the task occupied the complete attention of the student-teachers. The beginning stage of teaching has been described as the “survival and discovery stage” (Huberman, 1992) in which novice teachers’ priorities are in completing and controlling individual classes rather than enhancing their students’ learning. Therefore, student-teachers will likely need support in linking communicative lessons with form-focused lessons.

Classroom-level constraints can incorporate both student and teacher factors. For example, much of the teacher cognition literature has found that novice teachers tend to teach in the way they were taught (M. Borg, 2004; S. Borg, 2006; Kagan, 1992; Lortie, 1975; J. C. Richards & Pennington, 1998). This means that even if teacher-education programs emphasize so-called communicative approaches, novice-teachers are unlikely to use them at their schools. Furthermore, CLT based classes require that teachers use the L2 themselves. Interacting in English with the learners while proceeding with the class requires a high level of English proficiency which, in the author’s experience, many student-teachers have not attained. Additionally, if learners themselves are unaccustomed to communicative activities or do not have the prerequisite skills for group work (J. C. Richards, 1987), most communicative approaches are likely to fail without some kind of special

intervention by the teacher. According to Richards (1987), the prerequisite skills for group work include: Participative Competence - The ability to respond appropriately to class demands and to the procedural rules for accomplishing them; Interactional Competence - Interacting appropriately with peers and adults while accomplishing class tasks; and Academic Competence - The ability to acquire new skills, assimilate new information, and construct new concepts..

### ***Helping student-teachers develop a contextually appropriate approach to CLT***

From the above, incorporating a contextually appropriate approach to CLT requires that teachers understand their context, are able to focus on both form and meaningful communication, have a high level of English proficiency, and are flexible enough to make any necessary adjustments to their lessons (For a significantly more detailed list of skills which are necessary to carry out CLT, see Takaki, 2012). In other words, teachers need problem-solving skills (Kagan, 1992) because what counts as good practice is largely seen to be contextually determined rather than universal (Edwards, Gilroy, & Hartley, 2002). In an EFL environment such as the author's, teacher educators will have to help student-teachers develop such an approach for schools where learners have limited English proficiency, and where the student-teachers themselves do not have the necessary proficiency to use English in class without significant effort. To do so, I have taken a socio-cultural approach to encouraging student-teachers' development. According to Golombek and Johnson (2011), the sociocultural approach stipulates that "cognitive development is understood as an interactive process, mediated by culture, context, language, and social interaction" (p.2). In other words, knowledge about teaching is not something that student-teachers are taught, but that they acquire through practical experience, classroom work, and interacting with peers, supervisors, and learners.

In a sociocultural approach to teacher education, practical experience is essential. However, contextually appropriate CLT arguably requires something that student-teachers do not have: experience. Therefore, I have tried to take a Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)-inspired approach in supporting student-teachers. That is, I have used my knowledge of context to inform student-teachers about the feasibility of their teaching plans. The ZPD refers to the "difference between what a person can achieve when acting alone and what the same person can accomplish when acting with support from someone else and/or cultural artifacts" (Bailey, 2006, p. 41). The key to giving student-teachers support from a ZPD perspective is envisioning what they can accomplish with help.

### ***Statement of purpose and research question***

One prerequisite for helping student-teachers learn to teach contextually appropriate CLT is to have an image of what contextually CLT actually is when practiced by student-teachers. A key element of CLT is authentic and meaningful communication (J. C. Richards & Rodgers, 2001), but

defining what constitutes authentic and meaningful communication in the classroom can be problematic (Seedhouse, 2004). In this paper, I will analyze classroom discourse between pre-service teachers and students in a teaching internship which I supervised. In the internship, two groups of Japanese student-teachers taught at two secondary schools in Bangkok, Thailand. Through analyzing the classroom discourse I hope to answer the following questions:

1. What was the nature of the interaction between the pre-service teachers and students?
2. How did the nature of the pre-service teachers' supervisor support impact the nature of the student-teachers' interaction?
3. What implications does this have for preparing student-teachers to conduct contextually appropriate CLT?

## **Background**

### ***The Puean Program***

The Puean Program, or "Friendship Program," is offered by the English Education Department at the author's university. In this program, student-teachers teach about aspects of Japanese culture in English at secondary schools in Thailand for a period of two weeks. Before the internship the student-teachers prepare two different lessons and then teach the same lessons repeatedly to different classes and grade levels of students. We have generally found that as student-teachers master the procedures of carrying out the activities by doing the same class repeatedly, they are able to devote more of their attention to support student learning by giving individual guidance or appropriately modifying their activities (Hall, 2010). The program goals are for the Japanese teachers and Thai students to learn about each other's cultures while interacting in English. The teacher development goals are for the student-teachers to conduct a class in which they can focus on content, form, and student learning. These are prerequisites for teaching contextually appropriate CLT which encompasses meaningful content, a focus on form, and meaningful interaction between learners and learners and teachers.

### ***The participating schools***

Significant reforms were enacted on school education in Thailand with the 1999 National Education Act. In the National Education Act, English education was made compulsory and was designed to be student-centered and focused on the "Four Cs" (Draper, 2012) which stand for: 1. Communication skills; 2. Connection of English with other subjects; 3. Community – use English in and outside of school; 4. Culture- understand the culture of other countries. However, studies indicate these reforms have yet to impact English education in Thailand as hoped (Adamson, 2005; Baker, 2008; Draper, 2012; Prapaisit de Segovia & Hardison, 2008). According to Adamson (2005),



one such reason could be the mismatch between the authority held by the teacher in the Thai classroom and the increased authority given to students in learner-centered teaching.

The WN School and the SA School, a coeducational and all-girls school respectively, were the participating schools in the Puean Program. Both schools were from grades 7 to 12 and situated in Bangkok. Each school had 10 homerooms per grade with class sizes ranging from 40 to 50 students. The student body for each school was over 2400 students. The WN School offered Chinese, English, and Japanese as foreign languages while the SA School offered Chinese, English, French, German, and Japanese as foreign languages. At both schools, students could elect to major in a foreign language which would entitle them to have more intensive lessons in that subject with, in the case of English, native speaking (NS) teachers. Therefore, at both schools, there was a gap between students majoring and not majoring in English. Each school had approximately 17 teachers of English and three to four NS teachers. NS teachers typically taught separately from their Thai counterparts. Unlike Japan, there was no team teaching. Through observing classes of NS and Thai teachers as well as interviewing teachers and students, it was evident that both schools had issues in teaching lessons with a balance of communicative and form-focused instruction. For example, in the NS teacher English classes which had more speaking activities as well as group work and pair work, disruptive student behavior could make it difficult for much learning to be accomplished in the class. On the other hand, students in the Thai teachers classes in general tended to be more under control but there was much less communication in English.

On January 1, 2015, Thailand will join the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) which will facilitate freer movements of goods, services, investment, and skilled labor among the 10 members states of ASEAN (Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Vietnam). According to a Bangkok Nation Newspaper article (Chongkittavorn, 2012), the Ministry of Education has turned Thailand's joining of the AEC into the "Let's Learn English" campaign. In my conversations with teachers at both schools, they cited the AEC as a reason for students at their schools to become more proficient users of English. English, they say, will help them communicate with other ASEAN countries as well as enable Thailand to stay competitive in the global economy. Overall, it can be said that both schools felt the need to help students develop a high English proficiency but were having some issues balancing communicative and form-focused instruction.

### ***The participating student- teachers***

There were a total of five student-teachers who belonged to the English Department at the author's education university. Three student teachers taught at the WN School and two at the SA School. Of the WN School teachers, two were third year female students in the elementary school course and one was a fourth year male student in the junior high school course who wished to

become a high school English teacher. Both of the SA School teachers were in their third year and in the elementary school course. All five teachers had completed their four week teaching practice but only one, the WN School male teacher, had taught English for their practicum. All the teachers had taken at least four English teaching methodology classes and were selected for the internship because of their high achievement.

### ***Preparing student-teachers for the practicum***

The classes in this study were conducted at the WN School and the SA School between January 5 and 7, 2012. Because many of the students and teachers at these schools were affected by the catastrophic flooding of Bangkok and northern Thailand in October and November of 2011, the internship program was reduced from two weeks to four days. When supervising a previous internship at the WN School, I had found that if the teachers did not catch and maintain the interest of the WN students immediately, classroom decorum would irreparably breakdown. Some of the characteristics of classes that fell into chaos were 1) It was not clear to students what they should do, 2) The content or activities were not appealing to the students, and 3) Group work of 4 or more learners was introduced. At the SA school, on the other hand, students tended to make an effort to follow the class even when there were some flaws with the lesson.

<b>Table 1:</b> Guidelines for teaching at the WN school (Hall, 2012, pp. 5-6)	
1.	<b>Level:</b> The WN students are similar to Japanese students. Anything in English that Japanese students would not understand will also not be understood by the WN students. Therefore, do not give them a type of task that most Japanese secondary school students could not perform. When thinking of the degree of difficulty, activities should not be too easy, because then they will be boring; but they should also not be too difficult, because some students might give up.
2.	<b>Helping students understand:</b> Create as many visual aids as possible and practice using gestures to help students understand the content. Also, beforehand you should plan the blackboard layout.
3.	<b>Interest:</b> Conceive of a way to introduce the content that will whet the appetite of the students.
4.	<b>Keeping students occupied:</b> Keep the students busy through individual or pair work throughout the entire class. If students have nothing to do, they will become distracted.
5.	<b>Managing student learning:</b> Avoid group work unless you are used to teaching at the school or you are teaching a class of very advanced students.
6.	<b>Language focus:</b> Practice or review the language that is necessary for understanding the content, it will help students process the content more deeply.

The lesson topic at both schools was the same. Student-teachers taught about North-eastern Japan's history with tsunamis. However, because teaching at the WN school was more challenging, I

gave the WN student-teachers guidelines to follow and made sure that they followed the guidelines when planning their classes. Several times, I rejected the student-teachers' ideas and offered my own suggestions. For example, originally the WN teachers planned to read a long story about the tsunami and then ask students how they felt. I rejected this, helped them reduce the total text of the story to less than 10 percent of its original size and gave them ideas for pre, while, and post storytelling activities which featured listening for facts, picture ordering, cloze, and short free writing exercises.

Both the WN and SA School teachers used the same condensed story for their classes. However, while the class at the WN School reflected my mandate to keep the students busy, focused, and quiet, the more manageable class at the SA School featured freer activity in the task and post-task phase. Table 2 shows an outline of each class. Classes were divided into pre-task, task, and post-task stages in accordance with the TBLT way for organizing classroom activity (Willis & Willis, 2007)

<b>Table 2: Comparison of the tsunami class at the WN and SA schools</b>		
	<b>WN School</b>	<b>SA School</b>
<b>Content goals</b>	Learn about the history of tsunamis in Iwate through a case study of Taro village.	
<b>Ice breaking</b>	Japan quiz	
<b>Pre-task</b>	Learn background information about the tsunami of 2011. Students listen to a description while seeing pictures, and write the information on their worksheets.	Learn background information about the tsunami of 2011. Students listen to a description while seeing pictures. Then they walk to the front of the class to observe the pictures.
<b>Task</b>	Listen to Yoshi Tabata's (2011) account of the tsunami that came to Taro in 1933. While listening to the story, students order the pictures on their worksheets.	Story completion task. Students hear half of Yoshi Tabata's (2011) account. After that, using pictures, they have to reconstruct the second half of the story.
<b>Post-task</b>	Students have a copy of the story with blanks. They listen to the story one more time and fill in the blanks. Lastly, students write and present their response to "What will you do if a tsunami comes?"	Students present the story and then hear the real story from the teachers.
<b>Nature of student participation</b>	Individual and pair work: Students listen, and answer questions by writing. They say their answers when called on. At the end, students write and present free responses.	Pair work: Students write a story collaboratively and then present it.

Two weeks before leaving for Thailand, I met with the WN School teachers three times, helped them design worksheets, and watched them give demonstration lessons each time. Therefore, I knew the activities they would conduct in Thailand as well as what they would say when introducing these activities. With the SA School teachers on the other hand, I met them only once in the previous two weeks before departing to Thailand. Although I did know the type of tasks they would conduct, they never demonstrated how they would conduct them to me. As mentioned earlier, the ZPD refers to the difference between what a person can do when acting alone and what the same person can accomplish when acting with support from someone else. Given my experience at the WN School, I strongly believed I knew what would work and ultimately the student-teachers conducted activities which we created collaboratively. How would the WN School teachers' class compare to the SA school teachers' class who planned their lesson more independently?

## **Method**

Each group of teachers taught a total of seven classes which were all recorded on video camera. One representative class taught by each group was chosen for analysis. Each class was performed after the student-teachers had done the lesson at least four times. At this stage, each group was more competent using the classroom English necessary to conduct the lesson and they were also more adept at adjusting the plan when necessary to finish the class on time. Because the classes were most different in the task and post-task stage, it is the student and teacher interaction in these stages that will be compared.

### ***Method of analysis***

<b>Table 3: Richards' (2003) framework for analyzing spoken data</b>	
<b>1. Providing a general characterization:</b>	Who are the participants and what are their goals?
<b>2. Identifying grossly apparent features:</b>	What are the very obvious characteristics of the interaction?
<b>3. Focusing in on structural elements:</b>	How is the interaction structured?
<b>4. Developing a description:</b>	An overall description of the nature of the interaction

Keith Richards' (2003) framework for analyzing spoken data and Walsh's (2011) Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) will be used to analyze the interaction patterns of the class. Similar frameworks to Richards' framework for analyzing spoken interaction are in ten Have (2007) and Schiffren (1994), but Richards' framework was chosen because of its simplicity and it did not rely on a particular discipline such as conversation analysis which requires very detailed transcription. The aim of using this framework is to elucidate the nature of student and teacher interaction by moving

from a general to detailed analysis.

SETT will be used to characterize the “grossly apparent features of the interaction” in step 2 of Richards’ framework. SETT was designed by Walsh after analyzing a corpus of over 100,000 words of ESL classroom discourse in England. In the framework he identifies four modes of discourse. Each mode represents a micro-context created by the interaction between teachers and students. The interaction in each mode also reflects the pedagogical goal of the instructor. Although the framework was designed in a context different from Japan, it is my belief that it can be used to indicate which general areas of ‘teacher talk’ student-teachers can successfully employ. The figure below shows the pedagogical goals and interactional features of each mode. Lastly, the student-teachers’ internship diaries were referenced to provide insights into the pedagogical decisions they made and any student writing done in the classes was collected to determine the extent to which students could follow the lesson (When student work was collected, it was copied and then returned to them).

<b>Table 4: Four modes of discourse in the SETT framework</b>		
<b>Mode</b>	<b>Pedagogical Goals</b>	<b>Interactional Features</b>
<b>1. Classroom context</b>	The pedagogic goal is to make a communicative environment, teacher tries to generate discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Extended learner turns, short teacher turns, minimal repair, content feedback</li> </ul>
<b>2. Managerial</b>	The pedagogic goal is to organize student learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Extended teacher turns with explanations and instructions.</li> <li>• Confirmation checks</li> </ul>
<b>3. Materials</b>	Pedagogic and language goals center on the material being used.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Initiation Response Feedback (IRF), Display questions, corrective feedback</li> </ul>
<b>4. Skills and systems</b>	The pedagogic goal is to get students to produce accurate language or to practice a certain skill.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Direct repair, form-focused feedback, scaffolding learner’s contributions, display questions</li> </ul>

### **Analysis of the WN and SA Classes**

#### ***Step 1: A general characterization of the two classes***

The WN class had a team of three student-teachers. Their goal, according to one of the teacher’s diaries, was to “tell Thai students how dangerous tsunami was and the way to protect our lives from the tsunami (S’s diary, 2012/1/18).” The students’ role was to listen to information about The Great Tohoku, Japan Earthquake and Tsunami as well as Yoshi Tabata’s tsunami story, and write the information in a worksheet. Sometimes, students were asked to answer questions. The SA class teachers had a similar goal which was to teach students about the danger of tsunamis. However, the

students' role was not just to listen and learn the information. Rather, after hearing general information about the 2011 tsunami and hearing the beginning of Yoshi Tabata's tsunami story, they were to reorder five pictures from the picture book and make their own story before hearing the real one. Therefore, students were not just listeners but also active storytellers.

### ***Step 2: Identifying grossly apparent features***

<b>Table 5: Comparison of Student and Teacher Interaction at Each School</b>		
<b>Discourse Mode</b>	<b>WN Class: Time (%)</b>	<b>SA Class: Time (%)</b>
Classroom Context	00:00 (0%)	06:21 (29%)
Managerial	13:54 (30%)	03:04 (14%)
Materials	29:54 (64%)	12:32 (57%)
Skills	02:55 (7%)	00:00 (0%)

Here, Walsh's SETT framework was used. Table 5 shows that the dominant discourse mode in each class was *Materials*. This indicates that most teacher talk was devoted to explaining about the tsunami, telling the tsunami story, and asking students questions about it. However, because the WN class had more short activities than the SA class, more time was devoted to *Managerial* talk or explaining new activities or giving students' directions. The SA class had an element of discussion between students and teachers when the students presented their tsunami stories to the class. This interaction was classified as *Classroom Context*. The WN class, on the other hand, had no such interaction. However, when teachers and students did a cloze exercise for the last activity, the confirmation of vocabulary was classified as *Skills*, because the Japanese teachers were confirming the spelling of the words and thus arguably focusing on form. Overall, it can be concluded that in the WN class, teacher/student interaction constituted teacher-fronted talk focusing on the material, learner management, or skills. In the SA class, the majority of teacher/student interaction was teacher fronted talk. However, approximately 29 percent of the interaction featured extended learner turns and short teacher turns.

### ***Step 3: Focusing in on structural elements:***

In this section, I will analyze the structure of interaction in the *Classroom Context* mode for the SA class and the structure of interaction in the *Materials* mode for the SA class. Because only the SA class had *Classroom Context* interaction, analyzing these scenes can elucidate the fundamental differences in the WN and SA classes as well as which discourse modes student-teachers are likely to find manageable and challenging. The transcripts for each interaction are in Appendixes 2 and 3. The transcription conventions are in [Appendix 1](#) (The appendixes in the electronic version of the paper are hyperlinked. To view the transcript being described, the reader should click on the

appropriate appendix link.).

[Appendix 2](#) shows that the SA students' task was to order 5 pictures from the Tsunami story by Tabata (2011) after hearing the beginning of the story. In lines 1 – 4, the activity is introduced. In lines 6 – 9, the teachers nominate a student, S1, to present. Lines 9 – 17 describe in detail the action of S1 after being nominated. S1 goes to the front of the class with a partner, S2, whose job is to hold the picture while S1 tells the story. Altogether, it takes S1 two minutes and thirty seconds to begin telling the story. First, S1 shows apparent surprise at being selected. Second, S1 takes some time to consult with S2 about how to tell the story. The discourse in this scene is classified as managerial because the teachers are introducing and getting students started on a new activity.

In lines 18-47, S1 tells the story but receives considerable help from S3. In fact, lines 24 and 25 show that S1 likely used S3's utterance "They talk about the tsunami" to say "Talk about the problem of a tsunami." In lines 30 – 36, S1 and S3 collaborate to describe Picture C, but are unable to produce an intelligible description. In lines 37 to 45, S3 takes over and describes pictures E and D. The meaning of the description for picture D in lines 43 – 45 is not entirely clear. This interaction was classified as *Classroom Context* because it featured extended student turns with no teacher involvement. The total time elapsed from when S1 was called to when she finished the presentation was five minutes and thirty seconds.

In lines 47 – 53, T1 chooses another student to present. This time S4 is nominated by the class and it takes 52 seconds for her to begin telling the story from when she was called. In lines 54 – 87, S4 is able to tell the story while interacting with her classmates. The transcript shows constant laughter among the students. In lines 74 – 75, when S4 confuses the genders of the story characters, her classmates give her immediate feedback. Altogether, S4's story was approximately 2 minutes. This interaction was also classified as *Classroom Context* because the interaction featured extended learner turns and minimal teacher intervention. In both S1 and S4's story, there were opportunities for the teachers to provide expressions to students to tell the story. For example, in lines 43 – 46, S1 and S3 likely wanted to say "everything was swept away by the tsunami." T1 and T2, however, did not provide any language to help the students. In lines 88 – 95 the teachers give the main message of the story: Yocchan's grandfather told her about the tsunami and this ended up saving her life as she knew to run away when she heard the tsunami warnings. Therefore, it is important to understand the dangers of tsunami and tell others the dangers because this could save their lives. It is impossible to know the extent to which the students understood this because there was no written feedback or work collected by the student-teachers.

[Appendix 3](#) shows the interaction patterns in the WN class. In lines 1 – 11, T1 introduces the activity and explains to students what they should do. This is classified as managerial. In lines 12 – 19, the teachers act out a scene of the story. The students have to guess which picture the scene is depicting. This is the material mode. In lines 20 – 22, the teacher reminds students to guess which

picture the scene is depicting. Scene 2 shows the next stage of the lesson, a cloze exercise based on the story the teachers portrayed. In lines 23 – 30, T1 explains the activity. This is classified as *Managerial*. Next, in lines 31 – 36, the teachers reread the part of the story they acted out in Scene 1. This is classified as *Material*. In lines 41-43, the discourse mode changes to *Managerial* because the teachers are transitioning to another phase, confirming the answers. Lines 44 – 52 is classified as *Skills* because the teachers were focusing on teaching vocabulary and spelling (This, however, might not be apparent from the transcript). In Scene 3, the teachers end the class by giving the main message which was similar to that of the SA class. They also ask the students to answer the question, “What will you do if a tsunami might come?” Thirty-five students wrote answers to this question and turned them into the teachers. In all the answers the students wrote that they would immediately evacuate the area which could be an indication that they understood the message of the class.

#### **Step 4: Developing a description**

In the SA class, the teachers let the students control the interaction. The SA class featured active involvement by the students and a lot of laughter. Students also scaffolded each other’s language production and provided feedback. However, students could also be hesitant to speak or overwhelmed by the difficulty of the task. As a result, class time was used inefficiently as the first student presentation took more than five minutes. Also, when the students controlled classroom discourse, the teachers were not able to use learners’ struggling to produce utterances as an opportunity to teach useful phrases or structures. Lastly, it is not clear whether the students understood the main message of the class. This interaction is an example of the excitement that can ensue from *Classroom Context*-like interaction, but also the difficulty teachers might have in managing it.

In the WN class, the *Managerial* mode was used frequently to explain to students what they should be doing, confirm to student what they should have done, or introduce a new activity or exercise. The pace of the class was fast as the class was constantly moving from one phase to another. However, students were also constantly being reminded what they should do, so they could follow the plan. By having students complete worksheets and also write a reflection at the ending of the lesson, the teachers were able to confirm that students understood the main message. Students only spoke when answering the teachers’ questions, and there was no student-initiated interaction nor was there student to student interaction in the L2. The WN class did not have the laughter that the SA class had but it was clear that the majority of students could complete the tasks and react to the content.



## **Discussion and Conclusion**

### ***1. What was the nature of the interaction between the pre-service teachers and students?***

At the beginning of the paper, I argued that contextually appropriate CLT will incorporate meaningful communication and form. The WN class and SA class give different examples of meaningful communication. In the WN class, the strategy of conducting a series of “listen and do tasks” introduced by concise and rehearsed *Managerial* talk appeared to be relatively successful in keeping the students occupied and on-task. Although the majority of teacher questions were display questions whose communicative values have been questioned (Nunan, 1987), the students showed that they grasped the content of the story and were able to react to the content. Seedhouse (2004) argues that classroom discourse is its own unique genre of interaction and we should not be too quick to judge display questions as being non-communicative.

In the SA class, on the other hand, the teachers were able to facilitate learner-initiated output and collaborative learner output. These examples show that meaningful communication can be either controlled or freer and that the appropriate style will depend on the context.

### ***2. How did the nature of the pre-service teachers’ supervisor support impact the nature of the student-teachers’ interaction?***

In this case, supervisor intervention impacted the degree to which student-teacher interaction was controlled. The advantage of controlled interaction was that the student-teachers were able to conduct the class at a brisk pace and they were rarely at a loss on what to say. The SA teachers, on the other hand, tried more challenging activities as they were free from the supervisor’s intervention. The teachers, however, were not able to react as the circumstances required to facilitate learners’ output and take advantage of language learning opportunities.

### ***3. What implications does this have for preparing student-teachers to conduct contextually appropriate CLT?***

The WN class shows that through collaboration with their supervisor, the student-teachers were able to conduct a interactively smooth class with *Managerial* and *Material* dominated interaction. The SA class, on the other hand, featured freer communication which, from the student laughter shown on the transcripts, everyone appeared to enjoy. The teachers, however, were unable to capitalize on language learning opportunities or offer support to the presenters. One can make the conclusion that in the environment for this study, a contextually appropriate approach to CLT will feature teacher-fronted activity with some opportunity for freer L2 interaction between learners themselves and learners and teachers. Teachers, though, must be able to provide the necessary linguistic support for learners to do this. Furthermore, teachers need to learn to find the language

learning opportunities that emerge in their classes.

The appropriate type of student-teacher discourse in a contextually appropriate CLT class will differ with higher or lower proficiency students in the same environment. Showing future pre-service teachers the different types of interaction presented in this paper can inform them of the options that are available to them and give them clues as to how conduct activities with controlled or freer interaction.

### **Shortcomings of this study and future directions**

This study has attempted to elucidate the nature of classroom discourse in a contextually appropriate CLT approach to teaching. The primary shortcoming of this study is that the student-teacher's perceptions of their experience were not addressed. For example, changes that might have occurred in the teachers' perceptions of CLT, how teachers perceived the classroom constraints at the schools, and how teachers adjusted their teaching are not discussed. In my action research of future practica these are the questions which I plan to address.

Having finished this paper, I have realized another significant shortcoming about the practicum itself. That is, I told the teachers HOW to teach but perhaps did not explain enough about WHY they should teach that way. In the future, the Puean Program will need to help participants develop a more realistic view of CLT (conceptual understanding), recognize classroom constraints (what students are capable of, and what teachers are capable of) and an understanding of the system (the school curriculum, education in Thailand). It is my hope the Puean Program participants can then use these as criteria for analyzing why their classes were successful or unsuccessful, and make the adjustments themselves.

### **Acknowledgements**

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### Appendix 1: Transcription conventions from Walsh (2011)

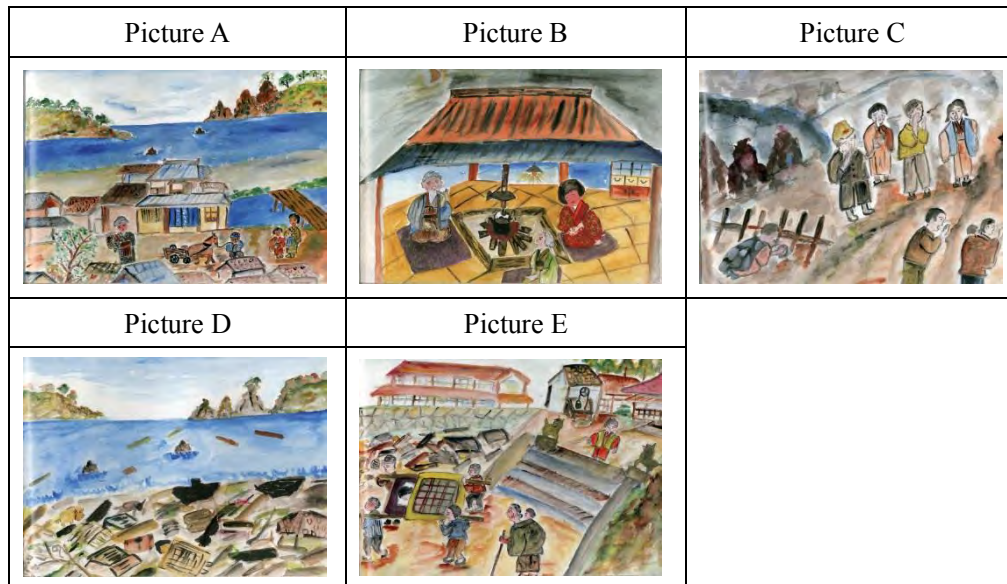
(Click [here](#) to return to the main text)

- T1 – Teacher (Identified)
- S – Student (not identified)
- S1 – Student (Identified)
- /ok/ – Overlapping or simultaneous utterances by students
- [Are you ok?]
- [Teacher, ] – Overlap between teacher and student
- = – One turn follows another without pause
- (3) – Silence given in seconds
- (( )) – Unintelligible speech
- T organizes group** – Transcriber's comments (**in bold type**)

## Appendix 2: Student storytelling in the SA class

(Click [here](#) to return to the description of the transcript in the main text)

**Description:** The SA students were making a story by organizing the below pictures from Tabata (2011)



Managerial

- 1 T2: It's your turn. Please make a story after ((unintelligible))
- 2 T2: You have a picture card, so, make a, the correct order and please make your
- 3 own story about tsunami. OK? OK. After that, please tell us about your story in
- 4 English. I'll give you three minutes. Start.
- 5 **The students begin to work on ordering the cards. Five minutes elapse.**
- 6 T2: OK everyone, one minutes. **Students continue to work for 1 minute.**
- 7 T2: Five, four, three, two, one, zero.
- 8 T2: Time is up. Now, please tell us your own story. Your good guess.
- 9 T2: Please tell us your story. You?! **T2 points to a student, S1. The student**
- 10 **refuses. Her friends persuade her to tell the story and S2 goes to the board**
- 11 **with her. After they arrive to the front, S1 and S2 seem to debate about who**
- 12 **will speak.**
- 13 **S1 holds up Picture A while S2 holds the microphone. S1 appears to be**
- 14 **discussing with S2 and other students in the front row about what the picture**
- 15 **depicts. T2 also tries to give S1 help. In total, two minutes and thirty seconds**
- 16 **have elapsed from when S1 was nominated to present to when she began to**
- 17 **speak.**

Classroom  
Context

18 S1: **Holds up Picture A.** Everybody is so happy... vi=  
 19 SS: =village  
 20 S1: /village/  
 21 SS: /((Various students call out advice to S1))/  
 22 S1: Every one, uh, has, have, have stay our home. **T2 and some students clap.**  
 23 **Now S1 holds Picture B. S3 and S1 consult for 28 seconds.**  
 24 S3: They talk about the tsunami. **S1 and S3 consult for 12 seconds.**  
 25 S1 Talk about the problem of the tsunami. **S1 changes to Picture C. All SS are**  
 26 **yelling at S1 in Thai about what she should say. This exchange happens for 23**  
 27 **seconds.**  
 28 S1: **Shows Picture B again.** They're talking about the tsunami. **SS react with a**  
 29 **surprised tone that S1 is talking about Picture B.**  
 30 S1: **S1 shows Picture C.** And they know. And=  
 31 S3: =Announcement! Announce.  
 32 S1: Announcement..  
 33 S3: About tsunami. /((Unintelligible))/  
 34 S1: /That every/=  
 35 S3: =yes  
 36 S1: Every ((unintelligible)) **S1 gives up and puts down Picture C.**  
 37 S1: **Holding up Picture E.** They're ((unintelligible)) **S1 interacts with the class**  
 38 **in Thai. It appears that they are discussing what is in the picture. S1 listens to**  
 39 **them and looks at the picture a few times. T2 says something to S1.**  
 40 S3: They run ((unintelligible)) to save their life.  
 41 **SS react and so does T2. S1 now holds Picture D and S3 holds the**  
 42 **microphone.**  
 43 S3: After tsunami came to that village. And that's why. /every thing/  
 44 S1: /every thing/  
 45 S3: that it pass, it pass.  
 46 **SS laugh and some clap.**

Managerial

47 T1: OK, I want to know one more group's story. One more, one more pair...  
 48 Please? Please tell.. **S4 indicates that she will do it.**  
 49 SS: Yeah! **Students clap and cheer.**  
 50 T1: **Points to S4 OK.**  
 51 **S4 and S5 come to the front of the class.**  
 52 T1: Please put in order. **T2 means to put the pictures on the board in order.**

53 T1:OK. (3) First picture. **52 seconds have elapsed from line 47.**

54 S4: **S5 is holding up Picture A.** OK, first, I tell, uh, before, have  
55 ((unintelligible))

56 S: happy!

57 S4: Happy. And in our, I'm sorry, in our village, uh, is a beautiful  
58 ((unintelligible))

59 S4: ((unintelligible)). Change, change **S6 changes to Picture B.**

60 S4: OK, second, uh. In her family /((unintelligible)) ok?/

61 SS: /((laughter))/

62 S4: Oh, grandpa ((unintelligible)) village

63 S4: /((unintelligible))/

64 S4: /((laughter))/ **Students are continuously laughing while S5 speaks.**

65 S4: **S5 holds up picture C.** Announcement. ((unintelligible)) about tsunami.  
66 ((unintelligible)) tsunami come, uh, will come. Ok.

67 S4: **S6 holds up Picture D.** Uh, a tsunami comes, um, and no anything is dirty.  
68 (1) And.. OK.

69 SS: ((laughter))

70 S4: **S5 holds up picture E.** This person **Points to the picture.** dead.

71 SS: ((laughter))

72 S4: And, this person **Points to the picture**

73 SS: ((laughter))

74 S4: Sad. Because he, ((unintelligible, perhaps saying something in Thai)) he,  
75 heeeee, sad about, /her wife, his wife. His husband./

76 SS: / No, no, no!/ **The students are indicating to S5 that she is**  
77 **confusing the genders**

78 S4: ((unintelligible)) Oh, husband die. OK.

79 S4: **S5 holds up picture 3.** OK, finally. Uh, they sad. And. **S5 looks at the**  
80 **picture.** And. Praying. ((S4 asks questions to the other students in Thai)).  
81 Praying. And he pray. This, ((S4 says something in Thai)).

82 SS: ((laughter))

83 S4: And ((unintelligible)) cry. OK, thank you.

84 T1: Thank you.

85 **SS and Ts clap.**

86 T2: Thank you, ((unintelligible)) good guess. Well done everyone. Thank you  
87 **SS and Ts clap again**



Material

88 T2: Yeah, there is a.. Taro was a beautiful village and Yocchan's grandfather  
89 always talked to her about the tsunami so she can say, ok?

90 T1: OK, now, uh, today, we told about tsunami so please tell about the tsunami to  
91 family or friend. It is important to tell about natural disaster. I hope no one killed  
92 by natural disaster. So please tell about tsunami many people. And we will talk  
93 about flood Thailand in Japan. We will tell many, many people. So, thank you so  
94 much.

95 **T2 does the wai and SS clap.**

### Appendix 3: Interaction patterns of the WN class

(Click [here](#) to return to the description of the transcript in the main.)

#### Scene 1: Listen and order

**Description:** Students are listening to Tabata (2011) and then must order the pictures in their worksheet. The work sheet used is below:



Managerial

- 1 T1: Today, let's read this story together. OK? OK. Before reading this story, please
- 2 look at your worksheet. Please look at your worksheet. (4) And please look at
- 3 order quiz, ok? There are six pictures in, on your worksheet and we set these
- 4 pictures at random, we set these pictures at random. So, we tell you the story.
- 5 Please listen carefully and please set these pictures in order like this. **T2 writes**
- 6 **the letters of the pictures on the board to demonstrate how to write the order.**
- 7 T1: Everybody, can you see? OK. Like this. (2) OK, do you understand?
- 8 SS: /Yes/=
- 9 T1:=Yes. So, now, we tell you the story, listen (1) carefully.
- 10 T2: OK, so I'm going to tell you the story, scene 1. So let's think about which
- 11 picture is scene 1 picture, OK.

Material	12	T2: The year was 1933. Yocchan lived in the village of Taro. She lived with her
	13	parents, grandparents, brothers, and sisters.
	14	T3: Hi, I'm Yoshi. Please call me Yocchan.
	15	T3: I love Taro village and my family. I'm so happy.
	16	T2: Yocchan's grandfather said. Always talked about the tsunami to Yocchan.
	17	T1: <b>He is Yocchan's grandfather.</b> Yocchan, Yocchan. When an earthquake
Managerial	18	happens, run away because a tsunami might come soon after.
	19	T3: I see.
	20	T2: OK, can you choose scene one's pictures? So next, (2) I'll tell you scene two.
	21	OK. On the night of March 6 <sup>th</sup> , Yocchan felt a big earthquake.
	22	T3: Oh no, it's an earthquake. I have to run away.

## Scene 2: Cloze Exercise

**Description:** Students listen to the scene one more time and fill in the blanks below.

N ... The year was 1933. Yocchan lived in the village of (                      ). She lived with her parents, grandparents, sister and brother.  
Y ... Hi, I'm Yoshi. Please call me Yocchan. I love Taro village and my family. I'm so happy!  
N ... Yocchan's grandfather always talked about the (                      ) to Yocchan.  
Gf ... Yocchan, when an earthquake happens, run away. Because a tsunami might come soon after.

Managerial	23	T1: So. Everybody look at me. Look at me please and listen carefully. OK. So
	24	now, I tell you the story again OK. Please turn your page over. Turn your
	25	worksheet over. (8) Everyone OK? Turn your worksheet over. OK. OK.
	26	T1: There are some blanks on your worksheet. Blanks. There are some blanks on
	27	your sheet. So, eh, we tell the story again and please listen carefully and please fill
	28	in the blanks. Please fill in the blanks. OK, do you understand?
	29	SS: ((Students respond))
	30	T1: OK, so let's start.
	31	T2: ((1)) listen carefully.
	32	T2: Scene 1, the year was 1933, Yocchan lived in the village of Taro. Yocchan
Material	33	lived on the village of Taro. (6) She lived with her parents, grandparents, sister,
	34	and brother. (8)
	35	T3: Hi I'm Yoshi. Please call me Yocchan. I love Taro village and my family. I'm
	36	so happy.

Material	37	T2: Yocchan's grandfather always talked about the tsunami. Always talked about
	38	the tsunami with Yocchan.
	39	T1: Yocchan, when an earthquake happens, run away because a tsunami might
	40	come soon after. (4)
Managerial	41	T2: OK can you fill in the blank=
	42	T1: = can you fill in the blanks?
	43	T1: OK, let's check answers. OK
Skills	44	T1: First blanks, Yocchan lived in the village of
	45	SS:/Taro/
	46	T1: Yes, Taro. <b>T1 writes the word Taro on the blackboard by the picture of the</b>
	47	<b>scene.</b>
	48	T1: Taro.
	49	T1: OK, let's move to the next blank. Yocchan's grandfather always taught about
	50	the
	51	SS: /tsunami/
	52	T1: Yeah, tsunami. <b>T1 writes tsunami on the whiteboard.</b> Tsunami, ok.

### Scene 3: Giving the main message of the class

**Description:** The teachers give the main message of the class and the students write a reflection.

Material	53	Today, did you understand how dangerous tsunami is? Do you understand?
	54	SS: Yes.
	55	T1: So, we cannot prevent from natural disasters like tsunami but we can run
	56	away from tsunami. Yeah? I believe that what we teach you will help. help you
	57	some day. Yes? OK.
Managerial	58	Today's class is over. That's all. Thank you very much.
	59	<b>Students clap</b> T1: Next, I have some questions to you. <b>T1 writes What will you</b>
	60	<b>do when a tsunami might come</b> (46:56 – 48:39)
	61	T1: OK. What will you do when a tsunami might come?
	62	T1: What will you do when a tsunami might come? Please write your answer on
	63	your sheet. (2)
	64	T1: Please write
	65	S: ((1))
	66	T1: Yeah ((1)) paper. Please write your answer on your paper. In English. (5)
	67	What will you do when a tsunami might come. (11) Short sentences is ok. You
	68	don't have to write long sentence. (3) Short sentence is ok. (7) Please write your
	69	answer on your paper.

# Modeling Japanese High School Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Context

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## Introduction

Although research has shown that teacher beliefs influence classroom practices (e.g., Borg, 2003), the relationship between teacher beliefs, classroom practices, and other factors in socioeducational context have not been fully investigated. This study examines Japanese high school teachers' beliefs and practices regarding Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).

Since 1989, MEXT, The Japanese Ministry of Education, has revised national curriculum guidelines twice to promote high school teachers' use of CLT. However, previous research reveals that CLT has not been widely used (e.g., Nishino, 2011). Various factors may have affected teachers' use of CLT. The purpose of this study is to investigate what factors influence high school teachers' CLT practices. The following research question was posited: How does the combination of six factors (teacher beliefs about CLT, perceived teaching efficacy, learning experiences, pre-service teacher training, in-service teacher training, and contextual factors) influence Japanese high school teachers' CLT classroom practices?

## Conceptual Framework

Borg (2003) reviewed previous studies on teacher beliefs, knowledge, and practices and summarized the findings using his conceptual framework (Figure 1). This framework consists of five factors: *Teacher Cognition* (what teachers know, believe, and think), *Schooling* (previous learning experiences), *Professional Coursework* (experiences in both pre- and

in-service teacher training programs), *Contextual Factors* (socioeducational conditions), and *Classroom Practice* (teaching experiences). The arrows show how these factors influence each other.

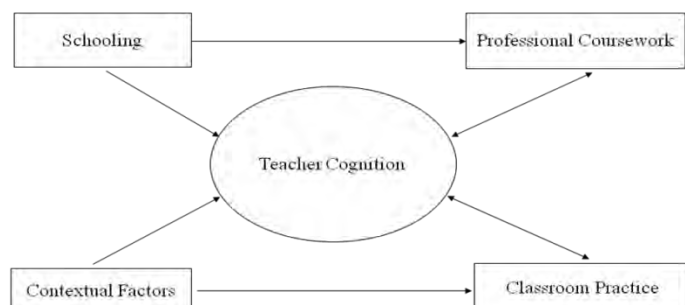


Figure 1. Borg's conceptual framework of teacher cognition.

Although Borg's (2003) framework is not designed as a statistical model of foreign language (FL) teacher cognition, it is comprehensive and insightful. I therefore hypothesized a path model based on it. However, because I aimed to investigate FL teachers' beliefs and practices regarding CLT, I modified the model on the basis of interviews with Japanese high school teachers, the knowledge that I gained in seven years of teaching in secondary schools in Japan, and a pilot study (Nishino, 2008). In the study, I administered a questionnaire to 21 secondary school teachers in 2003 and found that contextual factors influence both teacher cognition and practice.

In the model (Figure 2), I changed two of Borg's terms: teacher cognition has been changed to *Teacher Beliefs about CLT*, as this construct is focused on beliefs. Schooling has been changed to *Learning Experience*, which refers to learning experience that teachers had in secondary schools. In addition, professional coursework has been divided into two factors: *Pre-service Training* (what teachers learned about CLT in pre-service training courses) and *In-service Training* (what teachers learned about CLT after becoming a teacher).

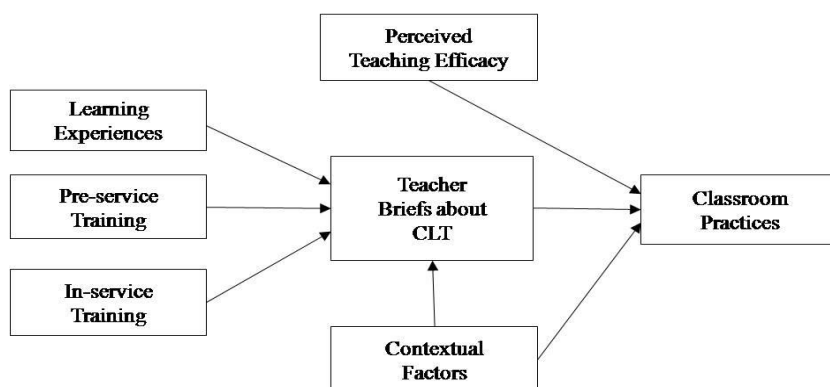


Figure 2. Teacher Belief Model 1 (Nishino, 2012, p. 382)

Another change in Borg's framework is the addition of *Perceived Teaching Efficacy*. Teacher efficacy can be defined as a "teacher's beliefs in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (Tschman-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998, p. 233). According to Smylie's (1988) path model, the strongest influence on "change in teacher practice" is personal teaching efficacy. Likewise, teachers' perceived efficacy might have a powerful influence on their use of CLT, especially if the instructor is a non-native speaker of English. Thus, *Perceived Teaching Efficacy*, which should be included in Teacher Cognition in Borg's model, is treated as an independent variable that influences classroom practices in this model. I named the model Teacher Belief Model 1.

## Method

I used a multimethods approach in this study: a survey as the main instrument, supplemented by qualitative data from interviews and observations.

### Participants

The respondents to the questionnaire were 139 Japanese English teachers from randomly selected high schools:<sup>1</sup> 82 from general high schools and 57 from vocational high schools. This relatively high total number of participants should provide valuable insights into teacher

<sup>1</sup> I randomly selected five of the 48 prefectures in Japan. I listed all the high schools in each of the five prefectures, numbered them, and chose 20 general and 20 vocational high schools from each prefecture, using a table of random numbers. I sent 10 questionnaires to each high school in October, 2006. Based on the average numbers of English teachers working in the high schools in the five prefectures, approximately 1,090 teachers were expected to have received the questionnaire. The return rate was 13%.

beliefs and practices.

For the interviews and observations, I selected four participants known to me personally. The schools where they taught were a girls' private general high school (Aki), a national co-educational general high school (Jun), a girls' public vocational high school (Koji), and a co-educational public agricultural high school (Nao). Only Aki is a female teacher. The participants' teaching experiences ranged from 24 to 27 years.

### **Procedures**

I developed the Teacher Belief Questionnaire (TBQ) based on the previous research (e.g., Gorsuch, 2000). The questionnaire consisted of 74 close-ended questions in Japanese. These were divided into seven sections: Part A: Beliefs about CLT; Part B: Perceived Teaching Efficacy; Part C: Pre-service Training; Part D: In-service Training; Part E: Contextual Factors; Part F: Classroom Practices; and Part G: Learning Experiences. I twice piloted the questionnaire, revising it after each administration, and then sent it to randomly selected high schools. After receiving 139 complete responses, I started the analysis.

The interviews and observations were conducted over an eight-month period. I observed the participants teaching three 50-minute English classes each, during which I video-recorded the entire lessons and took field notes. Based on both recordings and notes, I wrote up observational accounts. After each observation, I conducted 40-60 minute semi-structured interviews in Japanese and audio-taped and transcribed these. In the interview sessions, I asked each participant about his or her learning experiences, professional history, beliefs about language teaching, teaching context, and lesson procedures.<sup>2</sup>

### **Quantitative Analysis**

As the first step in the quantitative analysis, I conducted a preliminary factor analysis of

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<sup>2</sup> I administered the TBQ questionnaire to the 4 participants, and their Rasch person ability measures, the estimation of the 4 participants' positions within the distribution of the whole population (i.e., Japanese high school teachers), were checked for 11 constructs in the Teacher Belief Model 2 (see Quantitative Analysis). Their person ability measures ranged from -1.37 to 2.28 standard deviations from the mean, within the criteria for outliers at |3.29| (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Thus, they were considered part of the same population from which the survey respondents were drawn. Their measures were then excluded from the data so that they did not participate in the survey study also.



the questionnaire data. These data were then analyzed using the Rasch rating-scale model to confirm the validity and reliability of the questionnaire items and to convert the raw scores to equal interval measures. Eleven variables were identified through the preliminary analysis: *Positive CLT Beliefs*, *L2 Self-confidence*, *CLT Self-efficacy*, *Pre-service Teacher Training*, *In-service Teacher Training*, *Exam-related Expectations*, *Influence of MEXT Policy*, *Student-related Communicative Conditions*, *Teacher-related School Conditions*, *Classroom Practices*, and *Learning Experiences* (see Appendix). Final Teacher Belief Model 1 was then modified to Teacher Beliefs Path Model 2 consisting of the 11 variables (see Figure 3). As the second step, the hypothesized path model (Figure 3) was tested through a path analysis.

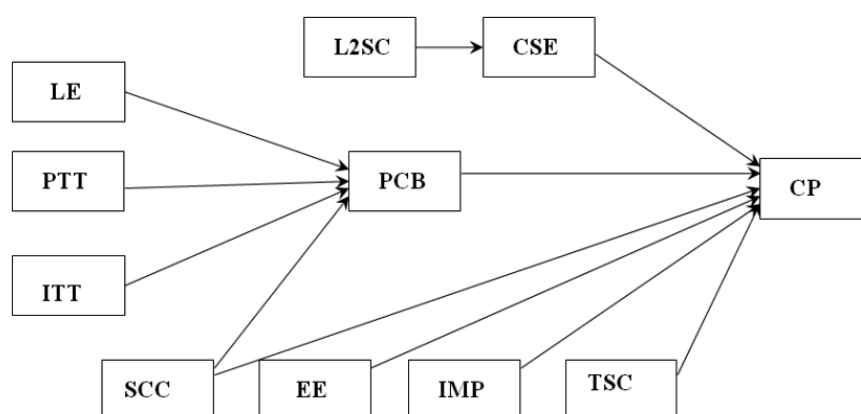


Figure 3. Teacher Belief Model 2 (Nishino, 2012, p. 385)

PCB = *Positive CLT Beliefs*; L2SC = *L2 Self-confidence*; CSE = *CLT Self-efficacy*; PTT = *Pre-service Teacher Training*; ITT = *In-service Teacher Training*; EE = *Exam-related Expectations*; IMP = *Influence of MEXT Policy*; SCC = *Student-related Classroom Conditions*; TSC = *Teacher-related School Conditions*; CP = *Classroom Practices*; LE = *Learning Experiences*.

### Qualitative Analysis

In order to analyze the interview data, I repeatedly listened to the interviews and read the transcripts. Then I conducted content analysis to identify experiences that seemed to have influenced the participants' use of CLT classroom practices.

When I analyzed the classroom observation data, I repeatedly read the observational accounts and watched the videos, focusing on the teachers' and students' activities and utterances, and I identified recurring patterns in each participant's lesson. I then summarized

the course of the lessons and described the classroom activities.

### Quantitative Results

Results of the path analysis showed poor model fit, so modifications were made to the model. The best-fitting path model was named the Final Teacher Belief Model (Figure 4). Three variables (*Learning Experiences*, *Pre-service Training*, and *Teacher-related School Conditions*) were deleted because they were not significant predictors of *Classroom Practices* ( $p < .05$ , two-tailed). Maximum likelihood estimation was employed to estimate the Final Teacher Belief Model. The results of the  $\chi^2$  ( $= 14.744$ ,  $df = 13$ ,  $p = .324$ ), GFI (.974), CFI (.993), and RMSEA (.031) indicated good model fit. Both GFI and CFI were well above the .90 criterion, and RMSEA was less than the critical value of .05 (Arbuckle, 2007).

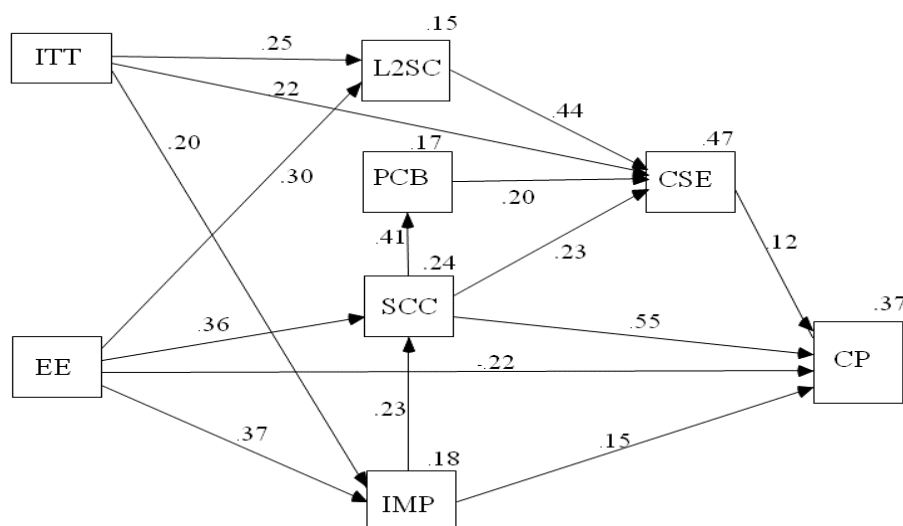


Figure 4. Path analysis results of the Final Teacher Belief Model (Nishino, 2012, p. 386)

Note. PCB = Positive CLT Beliefs; L2SC = L2 Self-confidence; CSE = CLT Self-efficacy; ITT = In-service Teacher Training; EE = Exam-related Expectations; IMP = Influence of MEXT Policy; SCC = Student-related Communicative Conditions; CP = Classroom Practices.

Direct and indirect effects are summarized in Table 1 (see also Figure 4). Four variables had direct effects on *Classroom Practices*, combining to explain 37% of the variance in *Classroom Practices*. Among them, *Student-related Communicative Conditions* had the strongest effect, with a standardized regression weight ( $\beta$ ) of .55. The other three direct effects were weak, with standardized regression weights of .12 (*CLT Self-efficacy*), .16 (*Influence of*

*MEXT policy*), and -.22 (*Exam-related Expectations*).

Table 1. *Direct and Indirect Effects of the Seven Variables on Classroom Practices*

	<i>Student-related Communicative Conditions</i>	<i>Exam-related Expectations</i>	<i>Influence of MEXT Policy</i>	<i>CLT Efficacy</i>	<i>In-service Teacher Training</i>	<i>L2 Confidence</i>	<i>Positive CLT Beliefs</i>
Direct							
Effect ( $\beta$ )	.55	-.22	.16	.12	.00	.00	.00
Indirect							
Effect ( $\beta$ )	.04	.33	.13	.00	.10	.05	.02

As regards indirect effects, six variables (*Positive CLT Beliefs*, *L2 Self-confidence*, *In-service Teacher Training*, *Exam-related Expectations*, *Influence of MEXT Policy*, and *Student-related Communicative Conditions*) had indirect effects on *Classroom Practices*. Among the six variables, *Exam-related Expectations* had a weak positive effect (.33). Interestingly, the same variable had a negative direct effect on *Classroom Practices*.

In sum, the Final Teacher Belief Model shows that *Student-related Communicative Conditions* impacted *Classroom Practices*, *Positive CLT Beliefs* had a weak and indirect influence on *Classroom Practices* via *CLT Self-efficacy*, and *Exam-related Expectations* had a negative direct effect and a positive indirect effect on *Classroom Practices*.

### Qualitative Findings

Results of the path analysis led me to ask the following questions: (a) how did *Student-related Communicative Conditions* influence *Classroom Practices*; (b) why did *Positive CLT Beliefs* have only a weak indirect impact on *Classroom Practices*; (c) did *Learning Experiences* actually have little impact on *Classroom Practices*; and (d) how did *Exam-related Expectations* affect *Classroom Practices*. In this paper, I focus on the influence of *Positive CLT Beliefs* on *Classroom Practices* (b), and report the findings from my interview and observation data.

First, the four participants believed that one of the goals of English education is to develop students' communicative competence. It should be noted, however, that the participants believed that developing communicative competence was not the only

educational goal worth pursuing. They all advocated their own individual goals in the classroom. Aki and Jun, who taught in general high schools, mentioned that preparing students for university entrance examinations was another important goal. At the same time, under the constraints imposed by these examinations, Jun set an ideal goal for teaching English. He mentioned that the goal of English education is peace education.

Koji and Nao also set ideal goals. Koji mentioned that he had three main goals for teaching English at this point in his career: a) students will gain new knowledge using English; b) they will develop their ability to think; and c) they will become gentle and broad-minded through reading beautiful English poems. One of Nao's goals in teaching English was to make students connect to the world. Nao also said, "I want my students to be independent through learning English."

Thus the participants held various educational goals, some of which (e.g., to develop the students' ability to think or to help them become independent) overlapped with those of school education. The participants appeared to regard English as a part of the school curriculum that should contribute to each student's self-development as a whole person. In that sense, their beliefs were situated in the school environment.

The second point to be noted is the participants' belief that non-communicative activities also helped students acquire English in certain situations. According to my observations, the participants occasionally provided communicative activities, yet their basic teaching processes were based on traditional, teacher-fronted methods. The core of their courses consisted of translation, reading aloud, and grammar instruction. This core is deeply rooted in the traditional grammar-translation method. The participants' practices thus appear to be strongly historically located and not deeply influenced by CLT.

Aki reported that she provided Japanese translation when she thought it necessary, although she had once believed that she should use only English in her classes. Nao stated that the most effective way for his students to learn English was reading aloud. Similarly, Jun believed that in order to enable students to make connection between meanings and forms, a reading aloud task was effective. These positive beliefs about non-communicative activities

did not conflict squarely with the teachers' CLT-oriented beliefs because they expected that the activities will facilitate communication.

To summarize, it is likely that multiple beliefs about the educational goals of English courses and different beliefs about teaching methodologies co-existed and interplayed in the participants' belief systems. Their classroom practices thus reflected their beliefs, and they occasionally provided communicative activities in the grammar-translation instruction. That might be one of the reasons why *Positive CLT Belief* alone had an only weak effect on *Classroom Practices* in the final Teacher Belief Path Model.

### **Implications and Conclusion**

This study investigates how teacher beliefs, perceived teaching efficacy, learning experiences, pre- and in-service training, and contextual factors influence Japanese high school teachers' CLT practices. The Final Teacher Belief Path Model revealed that students' conditions and entrance examinations had relatively strong impacts on classroom practices, and that teacher belief has weak indirect effect. The interview and observation study showed that teachers' beliefs are complex and situated in their school environment, and that their classroom practices are rooted in their particular local and historical contexts. This might be one of the reasons why teacher beliefs cannot be a strong predictor of classroom practices in the Final Teacher Belief Path Model.

This study suggests a number of pedagogical implications. First, if CLT needs to be implemented in Japanese high schools, MEXT should understand the high school teachers' teaching context because their practices are situated in their schools and classrooms. Second, MEXT should not require teachers to completely change their practice because they have reasons to use non-communicative activities. Third, and most importantly, the *Niji* examination system (i.e., second round of examinations provided by universities some weeks after the Center Test, which was administered throughout the country by the independent national Center for University Entrance Examinations) should be reconsidered and revised because examination influences students' communicative condition, which is the strongest

predictor of CLT practices.

In future research, the Final Teacher Belief Path Model should be tested with a new sample because the hypothesized path model was modified based on the results of model-fit measures. In addition, because the path model could not detect reciprocal relationships among the variables, future studies should perform Structural Equation Modeling with a larger sample size. Moreover, future research should address domains of teaching other than CLT and investigate a wider variety of factors that potentially influence teaching practices so that it can contribute to teacher education through further understanding of teacher cognition.

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## Appendix

**Table 2. The Eleven Variables Identified from the Teacher Belief Questionnaire (TBQ)**

Name	Questionnaire items loading on each variable
<i>Positive CLT Beliefs</i> (Part A)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- It is important to develop students' ability to communicate in real world situations.</li> <li>- Classroom activities should engage students in meaningful communication.</li> <li>- Developing students' fluency is as important as developing their accuracy.</li> <li>- Group/pair work plays an important role in helping students acquire English.</li> <li>- Students' motivation to use English will increase through communicative activities.</li> </ul>
<i>L2 Self-confidence</i> (Part B)	<p>In order to be a high school English teacher, I have adequate,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- English listening ability.</li> <li>- English speaking ability.</li> <li>- English reading ability.</li> <li>- English writing ability.</li> <li>- Knowledge of grammar.</li> <li>- Knowledge of the cultures of English-speaking people.</li> </ul>
<i>CLT Self-efficacy</i> (Part B)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- I manage the classroom adequately when students are doing group/pair work.</li> <li>- I provide activities in which my students can enjoy communicating in English.</li> <li>- I adequately facilitate my students' English communicative activities.</li> <li>- I feel uneasy if the class is not teacher-fronted.</li> </ul>
<i>In-service Teacher Training</i> (Part D)	<p>Workshops/seminars of teacher education courses I attended after becoming a teacher,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Promoted CLT.</li> <li>- Deepened my knowledge about second language acquisition.</li> <li>- Improved my skills for managing group/pair work.</li> <li>- Provided materials for communicative activities.</li> <li>- Provided chances to observe CLT lessons.</li> <li>- Provided chances to give CLT practice lessons.</li> </ul>
<i>Exam-related Expectations</i> (Part E)	<p>In the school where I teach,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Students have to study hard for university entrance exams.</li> <li>- Students expect to study grammar and translation in integrated English courses.</li> <li>- Parents expect their children to study hard for university entrance exams.</li> </ul>
<i>Students- related Communicative Conditions</i> (Part E)	<p>In the school where I teach,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Students expect to do communication activities in integrated English courses.</li> <li>- Student can understand and use English in group/pair work.</li> <li>- The MEXT-authorized textbooks are useful for communicative activities.</li> <li>- Students prefer group/pair work to teacher-centered instruction.</li> </ul>
<i>Teacher-related School Conditions</i> (Part E)	<p>In the school where I teach,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Each teacher can design his/her own syllabus.</li> <li>- Teachers have time for material development.</li> <li>- Each classroom has audio-visual equipment.</li> <li>- Materials for communicative activities are provided.</li> </ul>

Table 2. (*continued*)

<i>Classroom Practices</i> (Part F)	In integrated English classes, I use, <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Classroom English (I give directions in English).</li> <li>- Oral introductions (I introduce the content of the textbook in English).</li> <li>- Speeches or presentations.</li> <li>- Question and answer activities.</li> <li>- Task-based activities.</li> <li>- Group/pair work in English.</li> </ul>
<i>Learning Experiences</i> (Part G)	When I was a high school student, in my integrated English class, my teachers used, <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Classroom English.</li> <li>- Speeches or presentations.</li> <li>- Essays or story writing.</li> <li>- Summary writing.</li> <li>- Question and answer activities.</li> <li>- Task-based activities.</li> <li>- Songs or games.</li> <li>- Movies or drama.</li> <li>- Group/pair work in English.</li> </ul>



# A Comparative Study of the Corpora for General and Specific Purposes for a Pragmatic Study<sup>1</sup>

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This study<sup>2</sup> attempts to investigate (a) what can be provided by the corpora specifically designed for a pragmatic study and (b) that by the existing large-scale English corpora for general purposes – the BNC (British National Corpus) in this study – in the studies of English speech acts and politeness. The researcher has currently been engaged in a research project for the compilation of speech acts corpora (SAC), and this research project has so far succeeded in sketching out major lexical, grammatical, discourse and politeness strategies which characterize eleven English speech acts (Suzuki, 2009a; 2009b; 2010).

While the usefulness and the effectiveness of the researcher's own speech act database have been proven and confirmed in his earlier studies, it is desirable that the data in the SAC be compared with those in the existing mega corpora such as the BNC. This is because the SAC is based on the data collected through DCTs (i.e. discourse completion tests) and role-plays, both of which have been under discussion about the authenticity of the data collected with them. On the other hand, the BNC and other corpora are based on the real examples collected from conversations, media reports, books and so on; and they are supposed to be reliable in terms of authenticity. Therefore comparing the speech-act data in the SAC and those in the BNC is assumed meaningful and beneficial for the study of speech acts and linguistic politeness in that it can reveal the advantages and disadvantages of these two different types of linguistic databases.

## **1. Recent trends in the studies in pragmatics based on corpus data**

In recent years there have been an increasing number of research projects that explore the usefulness of linguistic corpora in pragmatic studies (e.g. Aijmer, 1996; Adolphs, 2008). This trend is showing the necessity of compiling and/or utilizing linguistic databases to investigate pragmatic phenomena in communication and verbal interactions.

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<sup>1</sup> This article is based on the author's oral presentation at the 15th Annual Conference of the Pragmatics Society of Japan (JSPS) on the 1<sup>st</sup> Dec. 2012.

<sup>2</sup> Grant awarded to the presenter's current research project: Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (C) awarded by JSPS (Japan Society for the Promotion of Scientific Research) [Subject num.: 22520410] (The compilation of speech acts corpora in English, Japanese and English as an interlanguage, aiming for their application to ELT in Japan)

The findings about speech acts and politeness in such corpora are thought to contribute to the provision of learning materials with which EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners can learn how to perform English speech acts properly (Suzuki, *ibid.*).

Since the speech acts corpora in the author's research project have exclusively been designed to explore target speech acts with the use of DCTs and role-plays, their scale and authenticity are in some ways limited. They are, however, an ideal database in that they can provide the most important information about various speech acts: lexical, grammatical, discourse and politeness strategies that are unique to individual speech acts. Therefore it is desirable that such specifically-designed corpus data and what can be observed in the BNC are compared, in the sense that the BNC contains much larger spoken data collected in authentic interactions (cf. Schauer & Adolphs, 2006). Through the comparison between the two types of databases, the following are expected to be achieved: (1) revealing advantages and disadvantages of the types of corpora for a pragmatic study; (2) devising the methods for combining the two types in order to explore pragmatic issues in a more efficient way.

## **2. Discussions on the DCT and the role-play as data collection tools**

DCTs have been widely used in large-scale pragmatic studies such as the CCSARP (Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project, organized by Blum-Kulka *et al.* 1989). The advantages in using a DCT can be summarized as follows: 1) it elicits data from a large sample of subjects relatively easily; 2) it can be designed to effectively control the contextual variables important to the study; 3) it has been especially effective for the comparison of strategies from different languages; and 4) it is also effective for the comparison of strategies used by native speakers and learners of the same language (Rintell & Mitchell, 1989: 250).

Whereas a DCT is an effective tool for large-scale data collection, it has been pointed out that the authenticity of DCT data is questionable when compared with that derived from more naturalistic methods (e.g. ethnography), which are based on natural oral interactions. Kasper mentions such weak points and how they have been covered by the DCT's strong points, introducing two examples in previous studies:

A serious concern is how production questionnaires compare to authentic data. Beebe and Cummings (1996, originally presented in 1985) compared refusals elicited through a single-item questionnaire with refusals performed in telephone conversations in response to the same request. Interlocutors in these interchanges were native speakers of American English. The questionnaire responses did *not* represent natural speech with respect to the actual wording, range of refusal strategies, and response length, but they modelled the

‘canonical shape’ of refusals, shed light on the social and psychological factors that are likely to affect speech act performance, and helped establish an initial classification of refusal strategies.

Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig (1992) examined the rejections by native and non-native graduate students of their academic advisers’ suggestions for the students’ course schedules. The production questionnaire elicited a narrower range of semantic formulae and fewer status-preserving strategies than the authentic data, yet it proved an adequate instrument to test hypotheses derived from the authentic interactions. The questionnaire data confirmed Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig’s (1992) hypothesis that the non-native speakers were more likely to use unacceptable content to reject advice than the native speakers.

(Kasper, 2000: 329)

Finally, she concludes by emphasizing the strong points of the DCT as follows.

When carefully designed, production questionnaires are useful to inform about speakers’ pragmalinguistic knowledge of the strategies and linguistic forms by which communicative acts can be implemented, and about their sociopragmatic knowledge of the context factors under which particular strategic and linguistic choices are appropriate. Whether or not speakers use exactly the same strategies and forms in actual discourse is a different matter, but the questionnaire responses indicate what strategic and linguistic options are consonant with pragmatic norms and what contextual factors influence their choices (although recent studies suggest some qualification...).

(Kasper, *ibid.*: 329-30).

With regard to role-plays, Tran defines them as “simulations of social interactions in which participants assume and enact described roles within specified situations” (2006: 3). According to Tran (*ibid.*), while they “allow more negotiation, repetition and avoidance strategies than written questionnaires” (Margalef-Boada, 1993 in Tran, *ibid.*), they “could sometimes be unrealistic to participants” (Cohen & Olsthain, 1993 in Tran, *ibid.*). Tran also states that “[r]ole-play data has also been criticized for being not natural enough” while “[t]hese disadvantages, however, are remediable” (Tran, *ibid.*).

The researcher’s SAC is based on the data elicited by both DCTs and role-plays. The database has so far succeeded, as Kasper stated above, in sketching out the main lexicogrammatical and discourse strategies in target speech acts (Suzuki, *ibid.*). In order to investigate how the SAC data are useful and reliable, this study has explored the BNC to compare what can be found and used for pragmatic studied in these two types

of databases.

### **3. What have been investigated in this study**

In this particular case study, the two English speech acts “Inviting” and “Suggesting” were used to make a comparison between the SAC and the BNC (spoken context) with regard to linguistic strategies mentioned earlier, along with the contexts in which these two speech acts occur.

These two speech acts were selected as they do not have outstanding head acts or “core phrases” as *thanking* (e.g. “Thank you”, “Thanks”) or *apologizing* (e.g. “Sorry”, “I’m sorry”) do. If the speech act possesses such conspicuous lexical or phrasal markers, it is quite straightforward to find such markers in the BNC or other large-scale corpora. Indeed such studies have been carried out in the research projects mentioned earlier. Therefore, what the researcher hoped to explore and investigate was if the BNC (and possibly other large-scale corpora) could provide samples of other speech acts without such noticeable lexical or phrasal markers.

The author’s findings in this study are to address how to keep a good balance between the two types of corpora, i.e. the corpora for general purposes (BNC) and those for specific purposes (SAC), in pursuit of more efficient and elaborate pragmatic study. They are also assumed to be useful and beneficial for considering how to design more advanced corpora for such specific purposes.

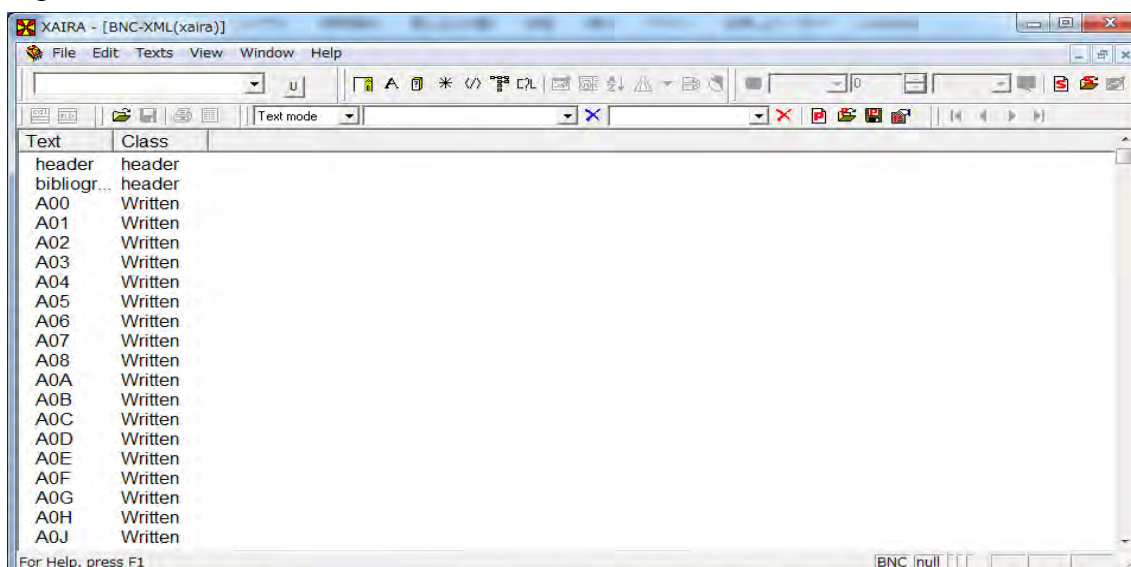
### **4. Research methodology**

In order to explore what can be found and utilized in the BNC with regard to English speech acts, Xaira 1.23<sup>3</sup>, a computer software especially developed for the exploration of the BNC, was employed in this study.

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<sup>3</sup> University of Oxford IT Services describes Xaira as follows: “Xaira is the name for a version of SARA, the text searching software originally developed at Oxford University Computing Services for use with the British National Corpus. Xaira was entirely re-written as a general purpose XML search engine, which will operate on any corpus of well-formed XML documents.” (Retrieved from <http://projects.oucs.ox.ac.uk/xaira/> [25/6/2013].)

Figure 1. *Xaira – Start screen*



The investigation was carried out through the following procedure:

- Text mode: “Spoken context”, “Speech only”
- Lexical level search: “Word query”
- Phrasal level search (lexicogrammatical level): “Phrase query” [three distinctive phrases from each speech act]
- Discourse level: from the “Solutions”

Figure 2. *Xaira – Phrase query with “how about”*

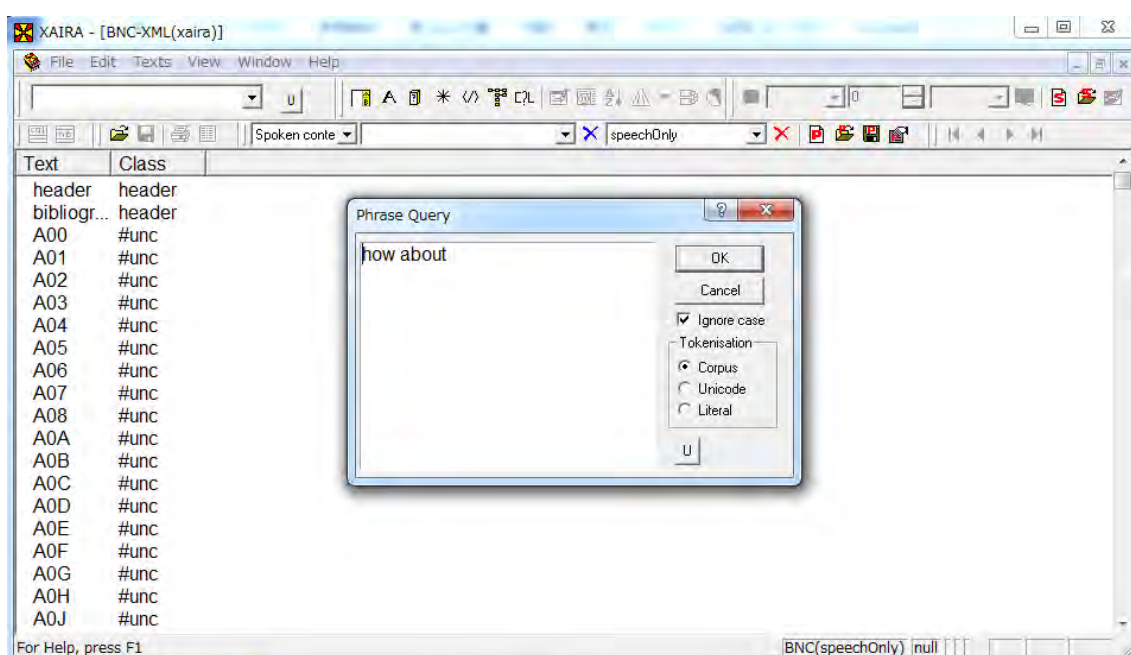
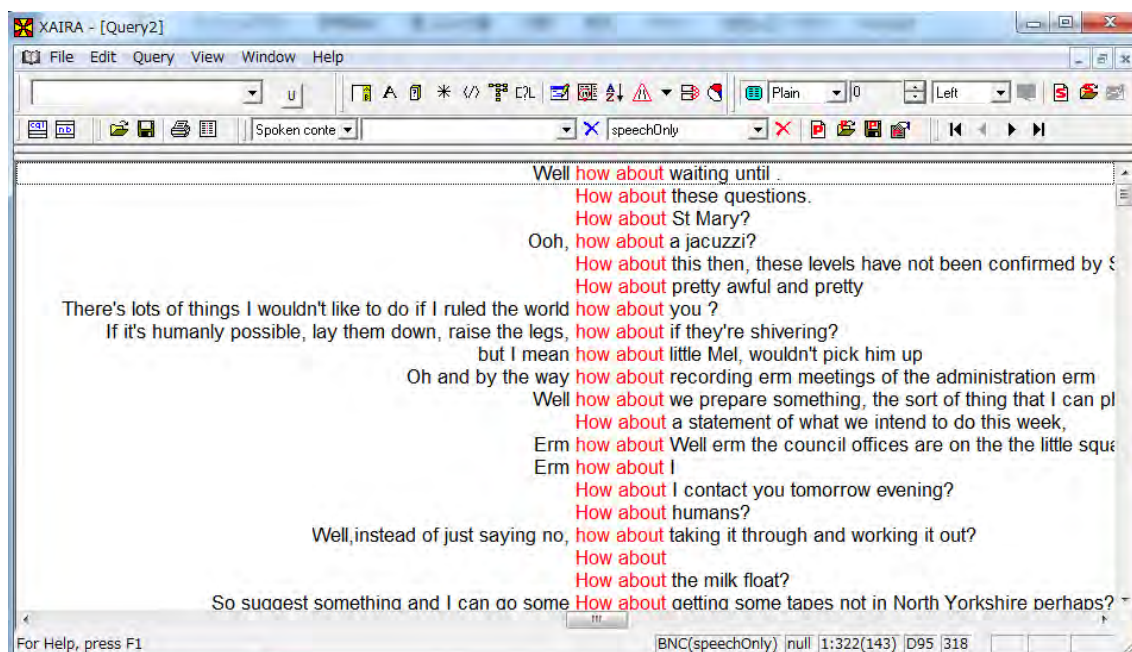


Figure 3. *Xaira – The result of the phrase query with “how about”*



With regard to (a: Text mode), “Spoken context” and “Speech only” were selected as this research project has been exploring speech acts in conversations or verbal interactions. As for (b Lexical level search), “Word query” was tried out but no meaningful result was obtained by this method, unfortunately. This is mainly because it is extremely difficult to extract speech act expressions with only one word. However, (c: Phrasal level search) with “Phrase query” proved quite workable for the purpose of this study. For the query with this function of Xaira, three distinctive phrases from each speech act were chosen and investigated. In terms of (d: Discourse level), the researcher tried to explore the corpus data by using “Solutions” but no meaningful result was not gained for this study this time.

## **5. Exploration of Inviting and Suggesting in the BNC**

### **5.1. Inviting**

In order to explore the BNC for the lexicogrammatical devices for *inviting* in English, the researcher started with the lexical data in the SAC.

Table 1. *The list of words based on the frequency (Inviting)*

Invite (Suzuki, 2009b)					
N	Word	Freq.	N	Word	Freq.
1	TO	206	15	ARE	40
2	YOU	195	16	TONIGHT	40
3	COME	106	17	ME	39
4	A	74	18	THE	39
5	HEY	73	19	DO	37
6	WOULD	66	20	AT	36
7	LIKE	64	21	HAVING	35
8	PARTY	56	22	IF	31
9	WANT	55	23	I'M	29
10	AND	48	24	GOING	24
11	GO	45	25	OVER	24
12	MY	45	26	HOUSE	21
13	WITH	45	27	ON	21
14	I	42			

As explained above, the investigation through “Word query” could not produce any meaningful result. Therefore the second stage survey, “Phrase query” was tried out. Three of the most frequently used phrases, confirmed in the researcher’s previous study (Suzuki, 2009b), were selected for this query: *would you like to come*, *do you want to come*, and *you should come*. After the query results were obtained, the researcher examined each example to decide if it was used for *inviting* or for other speech acts. The summary of the research result is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. *The summary of the research result (Inviting)*

Phrases	Solutions (Types)	Total number
<i>would you like to come</i>	<b>Invitation:</b> 2 (10%)	21
	Others/Unknown: (90%)	
<i>do you want to come</i>	<b>Invitation:</b> 6 (17%)	36
	Others/Unknown: 30 (83%)	
<i>you should come</i>	<b>Invitation:</b> 1 (17%)	6
	Others/Unknown: 5 (83%)	

Table 2 indicates that although it has been confirmed that these phrases are used to perform *inviting* in the BNC, such uses are quite limited as the figures show.

## 5.2. Suggesting

Next, the speech act of *suggesting* was investigated in the same way. Table 3 shows the words frequently used by the American university undergraduates to perform this speech act in Suzuki (2009a).

Table 3. *The list of words based on the frequency (Suggesting)*

Suggest (Suzuki, 2009a)					
N	Word	Freq.	N	Word	Freq.
1	YOU	154	15	AND	22
2	THE	78	16	IN	22
3	TO	68	17	IS	22
4	I	64	18	WEAR	22
5	SHOULD	64	19	ARE	21
6	GO	46	20	GET	20
7	IT	45	21	WOULD	20
8	WE	44	22	MAYBE	19
9	THINK	40	23	BE	18
10	YOUR	40	24	REALLY	18
11	A	39	25	ON	17
12	THAT	30	26	WITH	16
13	DON'T	27	27	HEY	15
14	ABOUT	22	28	HOW	15

As the “Word query” did not work out for this investigation either, three main phrases, observed in the SAC (Suzuki, 2009a), were picked up for the survey in the same way as the researcher did for *inviting*. The target phrases were *maybe you should*, *why don't we/you*, *how about*. The results are summarized in Table 4.



Table 4. *The summary of the research result (Suggesting)*

Phrases	Solutions (Types)	Total number
<i>maybe you should</i>	<b>Suggestion:</b> 10 (83%)	12
	Others/Unknown: 2 (17%)	
<i>why don't we/you</i>	<b>Suggestion:</b> 0 (n/a)	0
	Others/Unknown: 0 (n/a)	
[Tentative] <i>how about</i>	<b>Suggestion</b> ÷ 294 (91%)	322
	Others/Unknown ÷ 28 (9%)	

This time some striking results were obtained. First, the use of *maybe you should* for *suggesting* accounted for as much as 83% of all the uses found in the BNC. As a result, it has been confirmed that the BNC is useful in the exploration of *suggesting* with this phrase. However, in contrast, the phrase *why don't we/you* was not found at all in this query. This might be due to a technical reason that the researcher might have had in operating Xaira, and another trial should be made in a further study to reconfirm if it is really the case that the BNC does not store this phrase in “Spoken context” – “Speech only”. On the other hand, more than 300 solutions were gained from the query with *how about*. The research result has the label [Tentative] as there was a problem in telling those used for *suggesting* from those for others, mainly due to the lack of context in which this phrase was used.

The above research result has given the researcher a mixed view on what can be done with the BNC for a pragmatic study. While putting queries with certain phrases can produce sufficient numbers of or “more than enough” solutions, some produces no solutions at all. This might be indicating that the BNC is not an “almighty” tool or the first solution to study about linguistic strategies of speech acts.

## **6. Summary of findings and conclusion**

The following are the tentative results obtained in this case study for the search of speech acts in the BNC:

- (1) Lexical level research with the BNC using the “Word query” has turned out unsuccessful (e.g. can, could, should, would...), due mainly to the fact that such lexical items are commonly used in almost all types of speech acts.
- (2) Exploring the BNC through “Phrase query” with the phrases or formulaic expressions that have been found in the target speech act data in the SAC looks promising.
- (3) Some formulaic expressions can be found in the BNC with a rather limited

number of solutions, while some other phrases can produce sufficient (or more than sufficient) numbers of solutions. Besides that, some phrases cannot be found in the BNC at all, supposedly because of its design of the data-sets. (However, this needs to be reconfirmed by a further survey.)

- (4) Searching for discourse strategies (i.e. semantic formulae) was unsuccessful, due mainly to the dispersed and fragmented discourse data in the BNC. (This also needs to be tried once again in another study.)

This preliminary study has shown some possible ways to utilize the two types of corpora, the BNC and the SAC, in pursuit of more efficient and elaborate pragmatic study:

- (a) Sketching out typical speech-act performance strategies at lexical, grammatical and discourse levels with the SAC, whose data were collected with DCTs and role-plays;
- (b) Utilizing the mega-scale general purpose corpora (e.g. BNC) to study about the actual occurrences of such linguistic strategies in the authentic data.

As can be seen from the above research results of this case study, the speech act data obtained from the BNC were too little or too much. The tentative conclusion at this point is that it is quite beneficial to start with specifically-designed corpora for a pragmatic study, with the data collection methods carefully designed to elicit near- or quasi-authentic data. “Controllability” is a very important issue in collecting data for a specific type of linguistic study. In this sense the DCT and the role-play employed in the researcher’s current project have turned out useful and effective.

At the same time, it should be noted as a limitation of this study that what the researcher was able to do with the BNC was rather limited at the time of this survey. Therefore learning more about advanced search methods is necessary for more advanced quantitative and qualitative studies.

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# Teachers' reflective learning through a teacher study group: Teachers' beliefs of task-based language teaching

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## **Abstract**

This paper is a qualitative study, which provides an accounting of three Japanese university teachers' beliefs toward task-based language teaching (TBLT). The participants are three Japanese university teachers who have been participating in a monthly teacher study group. The study examined how reflective practice occurs, such as negotiation of the definition of TBLT, and how to implement a task in the classroom. Two research questions are presented and answered in this paper: 1) How university teachers in a TBLT study group perceive TBLT? and 2) In what way teachers in the study group reflect on their learning about TBLT? Through the findings from the study, I would like to explore how a teacher study group can enhance or raise awareness of teachers' beliefs and practices in their teaching contexts.

## **Introduction**

Many researchers have been interested in exploring teachers' beliefs in second language (L2) teaching context. According to Pajares (1992), "all human perception is influenced by the totality of this generic knowledge structure—schemata, constructs, information, beliefs—but the structure itself is an unreliable guide to the nature of reality because beliefs influence how individuals characterize phenomena, make sense of the world, and estimate covariation" (p. 310). This can lead to the idea of teachers' beliefs as "all teachers hold beliefs about their work, their students, their subject matter and their roles and responsibilities" (Pajares, 1992, p. 314). In this study, I adapt Pajares's definition of teachers' beliefs explaining teachers' attitudes and values about teaching, students, and the educational process. Although some researchers state teachers' beliefs are static and remain unchanged in a teacher's mind regardless of the situation (Roehler, Duffy, Herrmann, Conley & Johnson, 1998), I think that beliefs are formed and reshaped according to the teachers' contexts. Teachers' beliefs are seen as increasingly complex, fluctuating, appropriated and related to affordances (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011, p. 282). Therefore, examining teachers' beliefs is essential in order to understand teachers' professional development.

Teacher development is a critical and important issue since teachers develop their knowledge and practices of their teaching while they teach. According to Borg (2006), teachers' cognition (what they think, know, and believe) is developed by many factors (e.g., language learning experiences, pre-service and in-service teacher education, and classroom practices). Not only by accomplishing development during their pre-service teaching training period, teachers re-shape and negotiate ideas of their teaching continuously.

Language teachers develop their beliefs and reflect on their practices in various ways, for example, talking with their co-workers about their classroom issues, attending teachers' seminars to improve their teaching, or observing their co-workers' classrooms. Belonging to a learning community, such as a teacher study group, is recognized positively for teacher development (Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004, p. 800). Although having an external network outside of school is considered to be beneficial, there are not many studies that empirically examine external teacher study group in EFL contexts. Previous literature in second language contexts mostly focuses on teacher study groups within the same institution (e.g., Clair, 1998). Therefore, it is meaningful and essential to explore the extent to which teachers can learn and reflect on their pedagogical beliefs from an outside network. In this study, I will focus on teachers' learning of TBLT through an external teacher study group.

### **Literature review**

In the field of second language teaching, many studies have examined teachers' beliefs. Although instruments to examine teachers' beliefs vary, Basturkmen (2012) found that many researchers have tried to examine teachers' beliefs and their practices in the form of case studies with multiple data source. For example, Borg (2011) examined the pre-service teachers' shifting beliefs through an eight-week in-service teacher education program in the UK. In his study, Borg (2011) used semi-structure interviews with open-ended questions to the six pre-service teachers. His findings showed that the pre-service course had considerable impact on the beliefs of the teachers. Yet, some participants' change has not revealed.

Another study by Woods and Akar (2011) examined the development of teachers' knowledge of communicativeness in language teaching (CLT) with six newly graduated language teachers in Turkey with questionnaires, follow-up interviews, and by having the participants reflect on specific classroom teaching that they observed in videotaped clips of classroom teaching. Their findings show that teachers' knowledge about CLT is highly valued as correct when they are more theoretical and non-personal, which are far from the teachers' experiences. Both studies reveal that teachers' belief change is very complex.

In another study by Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004), they conducted a case study using observational and self-reported data to examine the relationship between three teachers' stated beliefs about and practices of focus on form. Their results showed all of the participants expressed very definite beliefs about how to focus on form. Among the three participants, there were clear differences about how to recasts and what linguistic forms should be object of focus on form.

In this current study, I will also conduct a case study with semi-structure interviews and observations. According to Pajares (1992), “beliefs require assessments of what individuals say, intend, and do, then teachers' verbal expressions, predispositions to action, and teaching behaviors must all be included in assessments of beliefs” (p.327). Therefore, this current study attempts to explore how the participants construct, interpret, and reconceptualize their beliefs toward TBLT.

### **Task-based language teaching and the Japanese contexts:**

TBLT has received increased recognition in the field of second language studies for quite some time (e.g., Long, 1985; Skehan, 1996; Ortega, 2012). However, despite the contributions of previous empirical studies that focused on future pedagogical implications (e.g., Skehan & Foster, 1997; Ortega, 1999), some educators have debated and discussed the applicability and appropriateness of TBLT within Japanese contexts (e.g., Sato, 2010, 2011; Sybing, 2011; Urick, 2011). Some of the major concerns that English teachers in Japan typically are that teaching grammar is questioned and TBLT is mainly for advanced learners. For example, Sato (2010) implies that Present – Practice – Produce (PPP) is more appropriate for English classes in the secondary school level due to the mandatory use of government-authorized textbooks; an exam driven curriculum; and a lack of needs for English communication outside of the classroom. Sybing (2011) and Urick (2011) responded to Sato's opinion, saying TBLT is still feasible in Japan. This kind of debate or criticism against TBLT indicates that teachers have different perspectives toward TBLT and its practices. Ellis (2009) states that the reason why there are many criticisms against TBLT is due to the misunderstanding of a task. He points out that the misunderstandings include the following: a task definition remains unclear; a task does not prioritize semantic features; and it is difficult to conduct TBLT in an EFL context (Ellis, 2009, p. 226).

According to Ellis (2009), there are several criteria for TBLT: 1) the primary focus is on meaning; 2) there should be some kind of “gap” 3) learners should largely have to rely on their own resources; 4) there is a clearly defined outcome other than the use of language. In addition to the criteria, there are two types of implementing tasks. Ellis (2009) explains that

unfocused tasks are designed to provide learners with opportunities for using language in general communication. On the other hand, focused tasks provide opportunities to use the targets' linguistic features. Ellis (2009) also points out that unfocused tasks involve "task-based" language teaching, and focused tasks involve "task-supported" language teaching, where explicit grammar presentation is followed by grammar exercise (focused tasks). Therefore, the main question about TBLT among teachers who were doing the PPP type of implementation will be at what point students learn grammar or form. Given that those misunderstandings are embedded among language teachers, it is essential to understand how language teachers develop or re-shape their beliefs toward TBLT. In this paper, I investigate how teachers negotiate the meaning of TBLT through a learning community such as a teacher study group.

Several studies have examined teachers' reactions and perspectives toward TBLT. For example, Carless (2003, 2007) examined teachers' perceptions and practices in Hong Kong. TBLT has had a high profile in language education in Hong Kong, and many schools have officially adapted their curriculum as task-based. Carless (2003) conducted case studies with three English teachers, native Cantonese-speakers, in primary schools over seven months. He collected data from observations, focused interviews and attitude scales. His findings proposed an implication of tentative factors affecting TBLT implementation for primary schools in Hong Kong. In 2007, Carless conducted another interview study with secondary high school teachers ( $n=11$ ) and teacher educators ( $n=10$ ). The findings show that several teachers prefer PPP compared to TBLT. Both of Carless's studies (2003, 2007) imply that language pedagogy needs to be adapted to local contextual conditions and the characteristics of learners in spite of the government's top down decision of TBLT.

In another study that researched teachers' perceptions toward TBLT, Andon and Eckerth (2009) examined teachers' perceptions toward TBLT among experienced teachers who are former or current graduate students in the master's program of Applied Linguistics at the University of London. They conducted semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. Their findings showed that the participants developed their knowledge, beliefs and practices not only through the master's program, but also adapted the task-based materials in class or through discussions with their co-workers. This implies that teachers develop by communicating with other teachers through a community and their local contexts. Their study is relevant to my current research in terms of how in-service teachers construct their ideas, knowledge, and beliefs toward TBLT.

Although a considerable amount of research has been done in second language acquisition on the effectiveness of TBLT, little has been done regarding teachers' cognition

toward TBLT in Japan. The purpose of this study is to examine how teachers in a TBLT study group learn about TBLT, and how they develop their understanding of TBLT. My research questions are the following:

1. How do teachers in a TBLT study group perceive TBLT?
2. In what way do teachers in a TBLT study group reflect on their learning about TBLT?

## **Methodology**

### **Teacher study group**

The setting that I chose is a teacher study group, in which teachers get together once a month in central Japan. The study group started in March, 2011, with a small number of teachers. The study group consists of approximately 15 members. The members' teaching background varies from junior high school to university. All members are Japanese and the language they use during the study group is Japanese. Participation is not mandatory. In general, the average number of participants is from seven to ten people. The study group was started by some of the teachers who were previously acquainted with each other. They had conducted a similar teacher study group in a different prefecture. The members of the current study group brought their co-workers or friends to the study group, which had increased the diversity of the group due to their educational and professional backgrounds.

The study group is held on either a Saturday or Sunday afternoon from 1 p.m. to 6 p.m. every month. There are three sessions during the study group. The first session is a discussion session on TBLT for one hour (1 p.m. to 2 p.m.). This session has started from December, 2011. Initially, this TBLT session aimed for making a teachers' manual for TBLT implementation. However, the group members had different ideas about the definition of TBLT. Rather than making a teaching manual, the members spend time on discussing a variety of topics based on their interests and concerns. During the TBLT discussion, one teacher who is the facilitator for the session brings his/her task ideas and the members discuss the tasks. The TBLT discussion sessions were not always held since not all members are TBLT practitioners in their classrooms. As a result, only three members have repeatedly presented their ideas in the past. Table 1 shows the previous schedule that the study group had during the TBLT sessions. For the months that did not have a TBLT discussion, more time was devoted to reading (the second session) and research discussion (the third session). I observed and took notes during the first session of TBLT in January, 2013.

Table 1



*Topics of the Study Group TBLT Discussion*

No	Date	TBLT discussion topic	Facilitator
8	December, 2011	Clarify the concept of the discussion session	N/A
9	January, 2012	Clarify the concept of the discussion session	N/A
10	March, 2012	Discussion whether presenting in a conference or not. If yes, what kind of topic should be presented	N/A
11	March, 2012	Discussing a “TBLT implementation project” plan	N/A
12	April, 2012	Analyzing and discussing TBLT in the classroom with video	Makoto
13	May, 2012	Analyzing and discussing TBLT in the classroom with video	Makoto
14	June, 2012	No TBLT discussion session	
15	July, 2012	No TBLT discussion session	
16	August, 2012	Task-Supported vs. Task-Based Grammar Instruction: Teachers’ Voices	Hiroshi
17	October, 2012	Analyzing and discussing TBLT in the classroom with video	Hiroshi
18	November, 2012	Discussing “task-like” materials	Tomoko
19	December, 2012	Discussing “task-like” materials	Tomoko
20	January, 2013	Discussing Chapter 1 of Martin East’s book (TBLT in Foreign language Classroom)	N/A
21	February, 2013	Effects of repeated “desert island” tasks and reflection	Hiroshi

Besides an hour-long TBLT session, this study group also has two other sessions. One is a reading session for two and half hours. During the reading session, one member is responsible for summarizing a chapter of a book and guiding discussion related to that chapter. The other session is a research discussion session. One person brings his/her own topic of interest and provides a presentation for an hour and half. Due to the foci of the current research questions, I only examined the TBLT sessions.

## **Participants**

Three people participated in this study (Makoto, Hiroshi, Tomoko<sup>1</sup>). Makoto, Hiroshi and Tomoko are tenured teachers at universities. Makoto is in his 40s and Hiroshi is in his 50s. Tomoko is a female teacher in her 30s. Makoto is the founder and organizer of this study group. He is in charge of sending out e-mails to the members, asking other members to present, and booking a restaurant after the study group. His research interests are SLA and TBLT. He has published a book and several research articles regarding TBLT and English pedagogy. He used to teach in high school prior to working at a university. He has been invited to in-service high school teachers' workshops and lectures several times. Hiroshi also teaches English at a university and is involved in pre-service teacher training at his university. He was a former junior high school teacher in the Tokai region before he pursued his master's degree in English education. He has been attempting to implement TBLT in his classroom in universities. Immediately after graduating from university, Tomoko worked at an apparel company for four years. After that, she spent four and a half years in the UK and obtained an MBA and Master's degree in TESOL. Currently, she teaches English at a private university.

## **Data collection**

Consent forms were distributed to the participants prior to the implementation of the study. All of the participants agreed to take part in the study.

## **Observation**

A single observation was conducted in order to grasp a better understanding of the study. Although I have been participating in the teacher study group since May, 2012, I formally observed and took field notes for the first time in January, 2013. During the observation day, Makoto, Hiroshi, Tomoko were participating in the discussion from the beginning. When I observed, there was another member named Yutaka, who is a tenured teacher at a university in his 40s. Yutaka was also participating in the TBLT session when I observed. I interviewed him after the session. All of the three participants (Makoto, Hiroshi, Tomoko) have presented on TBLT in the study group while Yutaka did not present about TBLT. Due to the focus of this study, Yutaka's interview data is excluded.

Hiroshi was the facilitator/ presenter for the TBLT discussion on the observation day. Hiroshi presented his task implementation and his research results of the desert island tasks. In the desert island tasks, the students were asked to record their task performances. In the next step, they were asked to audio-record their feedback using their own recording device (e.g., cell phone, smart phone) or their partner's recording device while they listened to the

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<sup>1</sup> All names are pseudonyms

recording of their desert island tasks. Hiroshi's research examined what grammatical items could be noticed, corrected and retained through peer-feedback and self-feedback. Next, he examined whether or not peer/self-correction could lead to retention.

## Interviews

Five interviews were held from the end of January, 2013 to May, 2013. Table 2 shows the schedule of data collection. I interviewed Makoto twice, 45-50 minutes for each interview in January and February, 2013. I interviewed Tomoko twice for 30 minutes for each interview in January and May, 2013. I interviewed Hiroshi after I observed the teacher study group in February, 2013. After Hiroshi facilitated and presented his research of desert island tasks, I asked Hiroshi to come to a different room to talk about TBLT and the teacher study group. The interview with Hiroshi lasted for about 20 minutes. I also interviewed Yutaka but due to the focus of the research questions in this study, I mainly focused on the three participants' interview data in this paper.

I conducted semi-structured interviews (Appendix 1). Semi-structured interviews are "flexible to allow the conversation a certain amount of freedom in terms of the direction it takes, and respondents are also encouraged to talk in an open-ended manner about the topics under discussion or any other matters they feel are relevant (Borg, 2003, p.203). All interviews were conducted in Japanese and audio-recorded. Although interview questions were planned prior to the interview, I added relevant questions for the follow-up to the participants' answers as the interview went by. In particular, Makoto shared his ideas and experiences a lot without me asking him too many questions. In that case, I let the interviewee speak as naturally as he/she described so that I could elicit thoughts from the interviewees.

## Artifacts

I collected the teacher study group's schedule that was used in the past. The schedule lists the names of the facilitators and the discussion topics they presented (Table 1). Makoto keeps track of the schedule and history of the study group.

Table 2

### *Schedule of the data collection*

Participants	Interview
Makoto	January, 2013 (50 minutes)
	February, 2013 (45 minutes)
Hiroshi	February, 2013 (20 minutes)

**Data analysis**

Data analysis involves transcribing the interview data and translating the interview data into English. Observation data and artifacts were used as supplementary sources. According to Hatch (2002), since qualitative research generally involves interpretive analysis in nature, first researchers will need to complete a typological or inductive analysis at some level, then move to the next level to add an interpretive dimension to their earlier analytic work (p. 180). Interactive approach involves reading the data for a sense of the whole; identifying impressions; recording impressions; rereading the data; coding places where interpretations are supported or challenged; writing a draft summary; writing a revised summary; and identifying excerpts that support interpretations (Hatch, 2002, p. 181).

I followed the procedures that Hatch explains. First, I transcribed all the data for the interviews. They were transcribed first in Japanese, and later translated into English. To verify accuracy, each translation was sent to the corresponding participant for member checking. Within the data, I found two main themes: one is the participants' perception toward TBLT; and the other was the participants' perception toward learning from the study group in general. In this paper, I will mainly report about their beliefs toward TBLT.

**Findings**

Themes related to teacher beliefs toward TBLT by analyzing the data were discovered. These themes are connected to how the participants perceive TBLT and how they implement TBLT in their classrooms. In this section, I will demonstrate two main principal themes that emerged in their interview data:

1. Negotiation of TBLT's definition
2. Learning through teacher study groups

In the next section, I will discuss the participants' beliefs toward TBLT and how those beliefs change through participating in a study group.

**Negotiation of TBLT definition**

TBLT might be defined differently depending on the teacher. Therefore, the definition of task plays a crucial role in examining the participants' cognition toward TBLT. Throughout the interview, a couple of the emerging themes of how each participant defines task were found. The key elements were focus on form and appropriate level for implementing tasks. Among the participants, Makoto was clear and explicit about how he perceives task. It

demonstrated his confidence, experience and knowledge of TBLT among the three interviewees. Hiroshi and Tomoko have been using task-supported approach sometimes, and they are still determining how to implement task-based instruction to lower level students.

### **Focus on form**

Makoto believes a task-based approach might be better to conduct rather than presenting everything before the task. One of the examples that show his practices is that in a previous study group, Makoto brought a video of his classroom, in which his students were engaging in information gap tasks. His students were using grammatically incorrect sentences and used simple words during their group work. However, the students could finish a task only in English that was already familiar to them (e.g. students were exchanging information, saying “right or left”, “under the table” and “near door” to tell the location of objects from a handout during the information gap task).

For Makoto, it was completely acceptable that the students focused only on meaning during the information gap task. However, for the other study group participants, it was surprising to understand how students acquire the target language form through a task. Hiroshi expressed his opinion regarding Makoto’s task-based classroom teaching and had the following reflection:

Interviewer (I): Makoto showed video of his classes before. His students could somehow communicate using English words which they know to achieve a goal.

Hiroshi (H): That is quite risky. It depends on personality. I am a very careful person so I hesitate to do his way. If I do that way, my class would be a mess.

I: Mさんが授業映像とか流されたとき、学生もわからないなりに単語ならべてタスクをやっていました。

H: あれは、非常に冒険。性格もあるんだろうね。僕なんかは石橋たたいてわたる方だから、やっぱり躊躇するよね。だって、そんなんしたらぐちゃぐちゃになってしまうと思う。

H: If this same task is implemented in the junior high school, those students don’t have any knowledge beforehand, so there will be a big gap if you assume the task will work.

これを中学校でやったら、彼らは知識が何にもないわけだから、それを前提でやるとずいぶんと食い違いがあったんだよね。

Makoto and Hiroshi initially had a disagreement of how to define tasks. Hiroshi

preferred task-supported approach over task-based approach because he thinks that learners need explicit instruction before they try a task, especially when the students' levels are low (e.g., junior high school students). Hiroshi used to teach at a junior high school, where he sometimes used tasks as task-supported rather than task-based approach. Hiroshi mentioned that "implementing a task-based approach is doable at a university level because the university students already have knowledge of English to some extent." In Hiroshi's interview, he said that he is a very careful person, which permits him to plan and instruct the lesson carefully. Therefore, he said that "it was risky" to implement a task without any explicit grammar instruction.

### **Is task-based instruction only for high level learners?**

Similar to Hiroshi, Tomoko had reactions toward TBLT without presentation of form. She had always wondered what tasks should be like. For example, in a previous study group, Tomoko facilitated a TBLT discussion session. Her title of the session was, "Is it a task-like?" She brought three different kinds of task activities and shared these with other members. The reason why she chose the presentation title is due to that question in her mind while she taught. She was concerned about the following:

While I implemented a task, I was wondering if it was a task. I think I may not be able to implement a task well to low-level learners. I often show and present (grammar points). I am not sure what kind of tasks should be implemented for relatively lower-level learners, so I am still searching for a solution.

やりながらこれってタスクかなって思うことがよくあって、私が多分、まだ、タスクをつかってローレベルのラーナーにうまくやれていないと思うんですよ。で、そのどうしても、やっぱり、レベルが低い学生に対して、提示したりとかそういうことが多くなっているんですよ。どっちかっていうと下の方の学生にたいして、どういう風なタスクをやって行けばいいかわからないっていうか、模索していて、これってタスクかなって思ってみたり。

In her interview, Tomoko showed her concerns about implementing task-based instruction to her lower level students. In this instance, she also connected her ideas of "presenting (grammar point)" to definition of tasks. She has a tendency to present grammar points before the task for lower level students. In her interview, she stated that she has read some books related to TBLT implementation written by well-known educators and researchers, in an attempt to understand how she can adapt tasks in her classroom. The books she read state that teachers do not present grammatical points in advance even for lower-level

learners. She felt it is a bit difficult and she is still deciding how she can implement tasks for lower-level learners.

Makoto admitted that teaching English in a relatively traditional way, such as PPP or task-supported, gives teachers some form of security. He says:

Probably, teachers feel responses from students to some extent (with PPP). Teachers might feel students produce something that they taught. On the other hand, (with TBLT) teachers might feel anxious if they are told to do without any input. They might feel “what if I cannot control the classroom, or cannot manage my class, cannot maintain classroom discipline and so forth”.

確かに手応えはあるんだろうね。教えたことがちゃんとまなべたじゃないか！という手応えがあるし、あと、とにかくそれがなしで、まずわっとやってみましようというのは不安もある。どうなるかわかんない。自分の手に負えないことになったらどうしようとか。あの、統制がとれなくなってしまう。秩序が保てなくなってしまう。ってというような不安もある。

According to Makoto’s interview, he pointed out two things: teachers’ controlling students’ learning, and classroom management. He thinks that teachers like to know that their students are actually using what they learn from teachers. In another interview, Makoto said that most of the Japanese teachers, including secondary school teachers, like to take the approach to see what students learn in class because it gives teachers a sense of security. Makoto expressed his frustration when he was invited to be a teacher trainer for high school teachers and conduct a TBLT workshop. Many teachers showed their reluctance to TBLT, stating that “TBLT looks great but it cannot apply to my students or to my schools.” Makoto also showed his belief that teachers also like to focus on classroom management, saying “teachers might feel anxious if they cannot control.” He thinks that is one of the reasons why teachers, especially secondary school teachers, are not willing to try TBLT.

In his interview, Makoto reported that even elementary school students can achieve a task without being presented grammar points. Unlike Hiroshi and Tomoko, who are not sure about implementing TBLT for lower learners, Makoto’s belief was determined. For novice learners, such as elementary school children, he explained an example to me that they could use already known vocabulary, pointing out there are so many *katakana* English words in a child’s life (e.g., *koppu* = cup, *dorinku* = drink, *wota* = water). He said that teachers can even take advantage of *katakana* English and that there is no reason for children to use perfect English during TBLT. It shows that Makoto believes that students are able to achieve a task

without any presentation or explicit grammar instruction.

Based on the findings, the three participants have slightly different concerns toward TBLT. Among the three, it was obvious that Makoto has the clear and established perceptions toward TBLT. Mostly, the participants' definition of TBLT has a lot to do with presenting grammar points or not and with students' proficiency level. Given that the participants had slightly different ideas in the beginning, I will demonstrate the participants' learning of TBLT through the study group in the next section.

### **Learning through the teacher study groups**

To understand the second research question ("In what way do teachers in a TBLT study group reflect on their learning about TBLT?"), the participants' learning and practicing through the teacher study group was a key principle. One of the advantages of the teacher study group is that teachers can exchange their ideas and learn from each other. As I observed Hiroshi's TBLT discussion session, the participants stated their opinions continually. In Hiroshi's desert island tasks, his students were asked to audio-record their self-corrections and peer-corrections while listening to their individual and peer-task performances. During the TBLT study group session, Makoto said that students might notice the partner's errors or their own errors, but did not comment on them because students had to listen to the audio-device continually. Another member, Yutaka, who specializes in universal grammar and is knowledgeable about the linguistic field, made comments from a linguist's point of view. For example, during the discussion, Yutaka stated "the result of retention might indicate that grammar instruction is important in classroom teaching in the end" or "error that doesn't carry meaning like the third person *s* doesn't retain." This knowledge is probably notable due to his specialization. Tomoko was quiet when Hiroshi was presenting. Hiroshi, after hearing Makoto and Yutaka's comments, decided that, at the next opportunity, he will tell his students to stop whenever they find their partner's mistakes.

During the study group, Makoto and the others in the group treat him as the expert and put themselves in a position to learn from him. During the observation, Makoto was the most talkative member among the three, in terms of asking more questions, providing constructive feedback and giving suggestions to make Hiroshi's research more successful. Makoto's belief toward TBLT was demonstrated by some of his comments. For example, Makoto suggested to change partners when students repeated the task; the second task and the third task with the same partner is just a practice without a purpose. His comments about rehearsing, changing partners, and changing decision making tasks to narration tasks showed that he knows a great deal of researching and implementing TBLT.

Hiroshi explained his reasons or triggers of why he started implementing TBLT in his



class are due to the influence of Makoto. After his presentation on the observation day, Hiroshi really appreciated Makoto's feedback. Hiroshi said that he could bring back a lot of *omiyage* (souvenirs) from today's study group. Hiroshi said as following:

His (Makoto) comments were very keen. His point that my tasks might not be a task was gained from an expert of tasks or someone knowledgeable of tasks.

やっぱり、鋭いなとは思ったよね。タスクじゃないんじゃない？という指摘はタスクをよく知っている人から得られると思った。

Tomoko also pointed out (what she believed to be) Makoto's sharp comments on her task ideas. When she presented three of her task ideas at the teacher study group, Makoto commented on her first idea: "It is a boring task." In her activity, students ask who the person (celebrity) is. First, students were not informed of who the celebrity was. Then, Tomoko showed, "He is from Yokohama" for presenting model questions and answers. Students were asked to answer a question to the answer, "He is from Yokohama", which is the answer to the question, "Where is he from?" When she implemented that activity, her students enjoyed the tasks and they were successful. Thus, at first, she did not fully understand why her task idea was not interesting. Makoto remarked that the students' production and answers were already determined for the task. Later, Tomoko stated the following:

Then, I reflected, I thought it was probably PPP. My tasks expected implicitly "present" then students reproduce exactly the (expected) same sentences in the end. I was not aware but, ah, I think it was (PPP).

そこから、もっと、よく考えたら、これ PPP だったかもしれないな。って思って。これ、プレゼントを暗示的にしている。それを同じものを reproduce できるかやっていて、最後に自分でやっている。意識なかったんですけど、そういう。あー、そうかって思って。

In her reflection above, Tomoko realized that her tasks were similar to the PPP approach because Makoto made a comment on her task. She noticed that her instructions expected the students to produce after they received direction. Tomoko's comment, "I was not aware but, I think it was (PPP)" showed that, although it was not explicit grammar instruction, the task only allowed students to answer in a limited way (e.g., answering, "He is from." without any other variety). She later said that it was good to reflect on the tasks from a different perspective and that it was an awareness and notice toward a new idea as well. It sounded

quite harsh if someone commented on a teacher's idea as boring. However, she recognized that it has some positive connotations. In her second interview, she recalls that her experiences of presenting her task ideas as the following:

It was a good opportunity to raise my awareness. There are many teachers who research TBLT. Unless you are one of them, other teachers do not really pay attention to whether it is a task or not when designing teaching materials, do they? They are more likely to focus on whether it is communicative or not. I am not saying that PPP is 100% wrong but I have now awareness of what tasks should be like.

そういう「きづき」にはなりました。タスクベースを研究している人たちがたくさんいますが、それを特別に研究してない限りは、先生たちは普段それがタスクなのか、タスクじゃないのか、意識しないで教材作っていませんか。意識してというよりは、どうしたらコミュニケーション活動ができるのかっていうことを意識している。PPP が 100%悪いとは思っていないんですけど、タスクって何だっていう視点は、持てたかなと思いますね。

She stated that she has never thought whether her activity would be a task or not before she presented at the study group. In her interview, she said, "Unless you research TBLT, you don't think too much about if it is a task or not when designing a task." She considers herself as one of those teachers who is not expert on TBLT. However, after joining the study group, she now believes it was a good opportunity to understand what tasks should be like, saying, "I now have awareness of what tasks should be like."

At the follow-up interview in May, 2013, Tomoko told me that the opportunity motivated her to conduct a task-based classroom from this academic year, without using regular textbooks. She creates her own tasks and borrowed some from textbooks such as describing a picture and finding some differences on the picture in a pair. She also told me her students' reactions toward tasks as the following:

My students in the highest level have approximately TOEIC 400 scores, but they are doing tasks seriously. Moreover, their eyes were sparkling. They cannot completely state a perfect sentence in order to complete a task. Even in that situation, students do tasks only in English like I use only in English.

上のクラスでも TOEIC400 点のレベルですが、タスクをよく取り組んでくれるというか、目がキラキラしている。本当にタスクをコンプリートしようと思つて、ちゃんと文章が言えない状態ですよ。そういう状態でも、日本語を使う

ことなく、私自身もないし、学生もすべて英語でやっている。

At the same time, Tomoko also confessed difficulty of sharing task ideas and asking other teachers to conduct task-based approach in her university. As a coordinator of the English curriculum, she is also in charge of managing other 20 part-time teachers. She said that, “For other English teachers in my university, even those who are specialized in TESOL, it is time consuming to learn about TBLT. For those who are not specialized in TESOL, it will be more difficult.” She wishes that TBLT could be gradually spread out by those teachers who want to further study about a new pedagogical approach, but not forcibly.

It seems that both Tomoko and Hiroshi gained a lot of knowledge about TBLT from an expert, Makoto. As observed during the study group and the interview, the members were willing to express their thoughts freely without too much hesitation. For example, some of the comments (e.g., “boring”, or “it is not a task”) could be interpreted as offensive to some teachers. However, the members did not take the comments personally; rather they accepted them as constructive feedback. This indicates that members in this study group can freely contribute to a constructive discussion. Not only learning from the expert, Makoto also made comments about learning from the other members as well. Makoto said:

Whenever I go to the study group, I noticed something new. Ah, I see and I understand now or I feel this is very interesting. I have never experienced without learning anything new.

行けば必ず新しいことに必ず気がつく。いくつか、あ、そうか、そういうことか、とか、この話面白い話だなんてネタになる話とか、必ずいくつかは得られるっていうか、それがなかったときって言うのはない。

As an organizer of the study group, he never missed a study group session. It seems that his appreciation of finding something new triggered him to organize the study group positively. Even seen as an expert of TBLT, he seems to learn new things from other members. His attitude toward learning from the group is explained as the following:

The teacher study group is mutually beneficial. I expect everyone to play a different role. To put it another way, everyone exchanges gifts. Let's say, someone finds some interesting things on this textbook, he/she introduces to everyone, then listeners can provide feedback. 研究会って言うのは、みんなで互恵的な精神でやるもんだから、みんなが役割を果たしてくれることをもちろん僕は期待してて、しゃれた言い方をすると、みんなで贈り物をし合う場じゃん。そんな面白いことがわかった、テキストにこんな大事な

ことが書いてある、だからそれをみんなに発表します、紹介します、で、それに対して聞いている人は何か言葉を返して互恵的な精神でやってることだね。

He did not specifically state something he learned about TBLT. However, he perceives the study group as an interactive way to “exchange gifts.” This seems the major reason why Makoto wants to have this study group. Since an expert is easily seen as a one-way lecturer by other members, he wants every member to participate proactively and exchange their thoughts in the study group.

## **Discussion**

### **How do teachers in a TBLT study group perceive TBLT?**

This paper does not intend to determine which pedagogy is better over the other. Rather, this paper explores to what extent teachers in a study group reshape their beliefs and utilize the new approach in their contexts. I will focus on the participants’ beliefs toward TBLT rather than discussing which pedagogy is more effective or not.

In the findings, one of the salient elements that the participants often emphasized was task-likeness, or task-probability; and to what extent their tasks function as a task. Both Tomoko and Hiroshi thought that their task ideas were not task-like enough at the study group session. Parts of their activities that they presented at the study groups were not seeking the real communication needs. For example, Tomoko’s students were already expected to produce the expected target phrases; Hiroshi’s students were repeating the task-performance multiple times to the same partner. In this situation, they realized that the performance does not create authenticity. Although a task is not truly situationally authentic, it can be interactionally authentic. East (2012) states the importance of this: “setting up a debate about a contemporary issue of relevance to the learners can be a legitimate language learning task if it is interactionally authentic, even if it is not situationally authentic” (p. 81).

In order to define task-likeness, the participants often compared the tasks to PPP. It is mainly because they perceive PPP as instruction that conducts communicative activities after the explicit instruction of form. Task-supported syllabus involves PPP to support the learners’ learning with focused tasks (e.g., grammar exercises). On the other hand, a “task-based” approach allows learners to achieve a task without explicit instruction (Ellis, 2009). Initially, Hiroshi and Tomoko perceived their tasks more as “task-supported” rather than “task-based.” For instance, they had questions about how learners can produce language without explicit learning, or how low-level learners or beginner learners can achieve a task goal. Makoto believes that learners can achieve a task without completely memorizing or understanding the

grammar or phrases. It was clear that even though they were in the same study group, there were gaps about task definition among the group members. That can create another learning opportunity: to make a consensus of what tasks should be like and how teachers should implement tasks in their classroom. In the next section, I will discuss how the participants, especially Tomoko and Hiroshi, reshape their beliefs of TBLT through the study group.

### **In what way do teachers in a TBLT study group reflect on their learning about TBLT?**

The interview data revealed that Makoto was seen as an expert of TBLT by other members. It is probably due to Makoto's self-efficacy; he has established credibility from his own use of TBLT implementation, and published a book and a few articles regarding TBLT. Other participants (Tomoko and Hiroshi) desired to learn from his ideas and his beliefs toward TBLT. Makoto's viewpoints influenced the other members' perceptions to some extent. For instance, Tomoko and Hiroshi both appreciated Makoto's ideas of task-likeness in their presentations. It implies that the study group can permit members to contribute to each other by stating their opinions and ideas fully and freely. The constructive way of discussion was found during observations and the participants' self-reflection during the interviews.

Another example of learning through the study group is that joining the study group gives the participants self-efficacy toward TBLT. Tomoko now believes that she has more knowledge of what TBLT is like. Previously, when making teaching materials, Tomoko never paid attention to the criteria of task-likeness before joining the study group. She now feels more confident and has started a task-based classroom in one of her speaking classes from the start of the 2013-2014 academic year. This was her first challenge: to teach based on a task-based syllabus without using a regular textbook. She said that it is manageable to conduct TBLT because she has more freedom to make her own task-based syllabus. There are more restrictions when she must share unified textbooks and/or unified grading criteria with her colleagues. Although she still has concerns about implementing TBLT to her lower level students, it is a big step for her to conduct a task-based classroom. Based on what she has reported so far, her students have been successfully enjoying English learning in task-based classroom.

Tomoko also recognizes the difficulty of introducing a task-based syllabus to other teachers in her university because she thinks it might be challenging and time consuming for other teachers to implement a task-based curriculum. As Carless (2011) stresses, teachers must "gradually implement ideas of their own choice at a pace that suits them and in a way that matches with the exigencies of their context" (p. 21). Teaching pedagogy can be applied according to the teaching situations.

## **Conclusion**

This study explored: 1) how teachers in a TBLT study group perceive TBLT and 2) in what way teachers in a TBLT study group reflect on their learning about TBLT. The participants' interview data demonstrated that they initially had different ideas of tasks. One of the main points that the participants paid attention to when defining a task was to consider whether it is a task-based approach or task-supported approach (which consisted of the PPP style). For instance, Makoto thought that presenting grammar points is not necessary, although it is not wrong to do so. Hiroshi and Tomoko questioned about the pedagogical decision of teaching for lower-level learners without explicit grammar instruction prior to a task. As Hiroshi and Tomoko joined and learned from the study group, they came to reach the similar definition of tasks as Makoto; which is a task-based approach. Tasks can be either task-based or task-supported, but the study group members seem to define task-based or unfocused tasks as more for authentic tasks.

Definition of tasks was negotiated through gaining input from an expert teacher. Makoto also provided Hiroshi and Tomoko opportunities to raise awareness of how to revise their task ideas. Hiroshi appreciated the study group members' feedback and comments on his research on desert island tasks. In particular, he acknowledged Makoto's expertise for providing constructive feedback to make Hiroshi's tasks more meaningful in an interactionally authentic setting. Tomoko also reflected that presenting on her task ideas during the teacher study group raised her awareness of what tasks should be. Before the experience, Tomoko never thought about the criteria for tasks. This experience encouraged her to conduct a task-based classroom with a task-based syllabus from this academic year.

Learning from the external study group has impacted on the participants' perceptions toward TBLT. The participants are able to reflect on their practices by becoming involved in presenting and sharing their task ideas. At the same time, it also revealed that Japanese English teachers do not usually pay attention to what a task should be like, or how to implement a task unless they have an opportunity to learn about TBLT. As a traditional approach, such as PPP, is widely used in the Japanese EFL context, there might be a challenge for teachers to begin a new approach in their teaching contexts. It is mainly because, as Makoto said, PPP or presenting grammar instruction prior to a task might provide teachers a sense of security to feel that their students are actually using what they learn from their teachers. With these thoughts in mind, this study group plays as a great learning opportunity for teachers to learn a new pedagogy in their teaching contexts. Learning from external sources such as this study group enables teachers to open their eyes from different

perspectives.

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## Appendix

### Semi structure interview questions

About the study group.

- What made you start/join the study group?
- Have you ever had this kind of study group before? If so, where?
- What do you feel are the benefits of joining this group for you?
- What is the most difficult thing about this group?
- What do you want to do with the group members in the future?
- Any comments or thoughts about your development as a teacher?

About TBLT

- When did you come to pay attention to TBLT? Why and how?
- How do you define TBLT?
- In general, what kinds of tasks do you use in your class?
- How was your presentation/ sharing of your TBLT ideas at the study group last (this) time?
- Have you implemented any tasks that you learned from the study group? If so, what are they?

# The use of J-POSTL in pre-service teacher education

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## 1. Introduction & Background

The current study reported on the role of the J-POSTL (Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages) checklist in promoting pre-service teachers' reflections on their learning. The J-POSTL checklist, developed by the JACET SIG on English Education in 2009, and available on their webpage, is adapted from the EPOSTL (European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Language) to fit the Japanese context. It is one of the sections of the portfolio. The checklist includes 100 CAN-DO statements for self-assessment that describe teaching skills related categories such as context, methodology, and conducting a lesson.

The goal of the current study was to investigate the potential role of the J-POSTL in pre-service teacher education in a small private university.

## 2. Method

### 2.1 Participants

Participants of the study were 13 pre-service teachers at a private women's university in Tokyo, Japan. They were all English majors, enrolled in a teaching certification program.

## **2.2 Materials**

### ***2.2.1 J-POSTL CAN-DO statement checklist***

The checklist used in the current study included 62 CAN-DO descriptors, which participants self-assessed on a 5-point scale ranging from “I can do this” (5) to “I can not do this” (1). The 62 descriptors included in the checklist represented 4 main areas and subtopics: I. Educational Context (curriculum, teaching goals and needs), II. Teaching Methodology (speaking, writing, listening, and reading), IV. Lesson Plans (learning goals, lesson content, lesson procedure), and V. Teaching (following lesson plans, content, interaction with students, classroom management, classroom language). The 62 items were selected by the researcher from the 113 items in the J-POSTL checklist to correspond to the course content.

### ***2.2.2 Questionnaire***

In addition to the checklist, a short open-ended questionnaire was used to elicit participants’ perceptions of the role of the J-POSTL checklist in their learning. The questionnaire asked participants to reflect on similarities and differences between the J-POSTL checklist and their coursework, in particular, their teaching portfolio that included revisions and reflections on their original lesson plans. More specifically, the questionnaire asked participants to report on (1) points where the J-POSTL checklist statements overlapped with revisions and reflections on their coursework, (2) salient points in their coursework which were not reflected in the J-POSTL checklist, and (3) new points that were brought to their attention by J-POSTL, and which they had not

noticed during their coursework. These questions were designed to investigate the contribution that J-POSTL makes to pre-service teachers' coursework.

### **2.3 Procedure**

The study was conducted in two phases. In Phase I, participants were asked to complete the self-assessment J-POSTL checklist at the end of the Teaching Methods in English (Eigo-ka) I course. At this time (January), all participants were at the end of their third year of study in university. Participants also completed Teaching Methods in English (Eigo-ka) II or III during the same year or during the previous year. The goals of the two courses were for students to (1) acquire a basic knowledge about English language teaching in Japan and second language teaching methodology and (2) acquire practical skills in teaching English in Japanese junior and senior high schools through planning and executing basic lesson plans. In the subsequent term, as participants became seniors, they then went on to complete a three week teaching practicum during May or June at a junior or senior high school.

Phase 2 of the study was conducted after the teaching practicum. Three participants completed the self-assessment checklist a second time, and also participated in a group interview about the J-POSTL checklist.

### **2.4. Analysis**

Participants' self-assessment ratings were tallied by item and by participant, and average ratings were calculated. Open-ended questionnaire responses and interview comments were examined for salient patterns and trends.

### **3. Findings**

#### **3.1 Phase I: Post-coursework self-assessment**

Participants' average self-assessment ratings for each of the CAN-DO descriptors were calculated. Averages ranged from a low of 2.2 to a high of 3.7. The average for all ratings was 2.8. Since a rating of 2 stood for "No, not very well" and a rating of 3 stood for "Neither yes or no" the overall average of 2.8 indicates a general trend for participants to provide a relatively low or negative evaluation of their ability to carry out the types of skills described in the CAN-DO statements.

There were only a few items evaluated as higher than 3.5, that is closer to a positive rating of "Yes, a little." These included (2) I understand the purpose of learning a foreign language, (83) I know how to make flash cards, tables and graphs, and pictures, and use multi-media materials.

#### **3.2 Phase 1: Questionnaire**

In addition to rating the self-assessment descriptors, participants also responded to several open-ended questions. First, participants were asked whether the J-POSTL descriptors corresponded to their course-end reflections about their lesson plans which they had completed *prior* to filling out the J-POSTL. All participants confirmed that many of the descriptors reflected the same content as their own course-end reflections.

Second, participants were asked whether their course-end reflections included learning that was not covered in the 62 J-POSTL descriptors they had filled out.

Participants' responded by listing a variety of concrete skills. Their responses fell broadly into two categories: (1) teaching to promote noticing and understanding, and (2) communicating with students. Examples of "teaching to promote noticing and understanding," included skills such as "give implicit corrective feedback in response to students' errors and promote noticing," "design a lesson to stimulate learners to think," and "teaching inductively." Examples of "communicating with students" included skills such as "calling on students," "dealing with a mixed proficiency classroom," and "giving directions effectively." In other words, these are skills that learners reported having learned during the course, but felt were not included in the J-POSTL checklist.

Finally, participants were asked whether the J-POSTL descriptors gave them additional insights into their learning that they had not noticed in their reflections on their lesson plans. Topics mentioned by multiple participants included teaching writing, making lesson plans according to the government guidelines, and responding to unexpected developments in the classroom.

### **3.3. Phase II: Post-practicum self-assessment**

Phase II focused on three participants who aimed to become teachers after graduation.

These participants filled out the J-POSTL checklist a second time after finishing their teaching practicum during the first term of their senior year. Average ratings for these three participants were calculated for each descriptor. Before their teaching practicum, the average self-assessment ratings for these three participants for each of the 62 descriptor ranged from 1.3 to 2.7. Their average ratings across all 62 descriptors was 2.0.

After their practicum, their average self-assessment ratings for each descriptor ranged from a low of 2 to a high of 4. After their practicum, their average self-assessment across all 62 descriptors was 3.2. Although 3.2 is still close to a neutral rating (“3” stands for neither yes or no), the average rating for the self-assessments showed an increase from 2.0 (before the practicum) to 3.2 (after the practicum).

The items with especially high post-practicum ratings included items such as “6. I can take into account learners’ need for a sense of self-achievement,” “30. I can design pre-listening activities to help learners’ orient toward a listening text,” and “72. I can plan lessons for teaching with other teachers including ALT teachers.” The items which the biggest magnitude of positive change in ratings include items related directly to classroom teaching techniques such as “26. I can help learners to plan and structure written texts,” “28. I can evaluate and select writing activities to consolidate learning (grammar, vocabulary, spelling, etc.),” “31. I can encourage learners to use their knowledge of a topic and their expectations of a text while listening,” “72. I can plan lessons for teaching with other teachers including ALT teachers,” (also mentioned above) and “74. I can be flexible when working from a lesson plan and respond to learners’ interests as the lesson progresses.”

### **3.4 Phase II: Questionnaire and Interviews**

Furthermore, participants commented during their group interview that they understood the significance of the descriptor statements much better after their teaching practicum. In other words, they had initially only understood the meaning of descriptor statements superficially, whereas after their teaching practicum they understood the



descriptors on a more practical level and were able to link the descriptors more concretely to students and the classroom. They also agreed during their group interview that they wished they had had the self-assessment checklist during their teaching practicum. One participant mentioned that looking over the descriptors after her teaching practicum served to highlight what she had learned during her teaching practicum. For example, after seeing the descriptor about “giving learners a purpose for reading,” she recalled being told that from her mentor during her teaching practicum and therefore realized through filling out the J-POSTL that that had been an important point that she should remember.

#### **4. Discussion**

The findings of the current study indicate first of all that the J-POSTL descriptors can be useful in guiding pre-service teacher’s reflections about their course content by directing the pre-service teacher’s attention to specific skills which they may not have otherwise noticed. In addition the descriptors are also useful in highlighting important points in pre-service teachers’ teaching practicum experience.

These findings confirm that the J-POSTL has the potential to serve as a tool to guide pre-service teachers’ learning. Furthermore, by providing a comprehensive list of skills needed for pre-service teachers, use of the J-POSTL helps to ensure a standard across various teacher training contexts or within a particular context across various instructors. J-POSTL provides both pre-service teachers and the teacher training faculty with a message as to what skills should be acquired before graduating from the teacher

certification course.

That said, however, one issue evident from the findings of this current study was that self-assessment ratings before participating in teaching practicum were fairly low across all of the descriptors despite having completed the required teaching methods courses. These results could be explained by a mismatch between the course content and the J-POSTL descriptors, or inadequate ability of the pre-service teachers to make links between the course content and the J-POSTL descriptors, or a combination of both. The comments by the participants after the practicum indicated that the participants had not fully understood the descriptors until participating in their teaching practicum. It may be that the low ratings provide a message to both the pre-service teachers and their teaching trainers about the quality of their coursework prior to their teaching practicum. It may be that we need to provide learners with more experiential methods of learning so that they can grasp more concretely what skills are required of them at earlier stages of their coursework. On the other hand, it may be that the fruits of coursework need not be expected so soon. It may be that coursework mainly serves to sow the seeds for later more experience-based learning and the J-POSTL is successful in providing teacher trainers and pre-service teachers with a roadmap towards pre-service teacher's learning goals for the future.

Another interesting finding in this study was that the participants reported that some aspects of their learning were not covered by the J-POSTL descriptors they had been given. This may be because some of the descriptors were worded in general terms whereas the learners wanted to document more concrete skills such as “giving implicit

feedback in responses to learner errors.” Thus, some modification or freedom in designing the J-POSTL descriptors may be beneficial.

Finally, it should be noted that the pre-service teachers themselves mentioned that they wished they had had these checklists with them during their teaching practicum. Within the current Japanese system of teacher training, there exists a strict divide in responsibility between teacher training institutions (i.e. the universities) and the teaching practice sites (i.e. junior and senior high schools) However, in reality, more close-knit cooperation between these two may be necessary in order to raise the quality of teacher training of pre-service teachers.

## **5. Conclusions, Limitations, and Directions for Further Research**

This small scale exploratory study investigated the potential role of J-POSTL descriptors in guiding pre-service teachers’ learning. The findings suggested that the descriptors did provide learners with insights that helped them to make new discoveries about their learning during coursework and during their teaching practice. The study also identified several issues that may need to be addressed in the future, including how the J-POSTL fits in with coursework as opposed to more experience-based learning such as the teaching practicum, the possibility of expanding the descriptors to include user-initiated items, and the potential need for cooperation between universities and sites for teaching practice. Since the current study was conducted with a limited number of participants during a very short time frame, further research should investigate a larger number of participants in a greater variety of contexts, and importantly conduct

longitudinal research that tracks students as they start and develop their careers as teaching professionals.

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## 査読規定

- 1 本研究集録では、査読を行なう。趣旨は次の3点である。
  - ・ 論考の学問的な価値を高める
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- 2 原稿は原則研究発表者が投稿するものとする。なお、投稿原稿はいずれも編集委員が依頼した会員2名が査読を行い、採否を編集委員が決定する。審査基準は、
  - A 採用
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## 編集後記

研究集録第3号に投稿いただいた皆様、査読者の皆様、また研究会で多くのご教示をいただいた会員の皆様に心より御礼申し上げます。各論文からは、言語教師のこころ、ことば、教育実践とその振り返りの諸相について多くの示唆を得られると考えます。今後、更なる研究者のコラボレーションにより、言語教師認知研究の理論的発展と教育実践への貢献が図られることを期待しています。  
(江原)

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